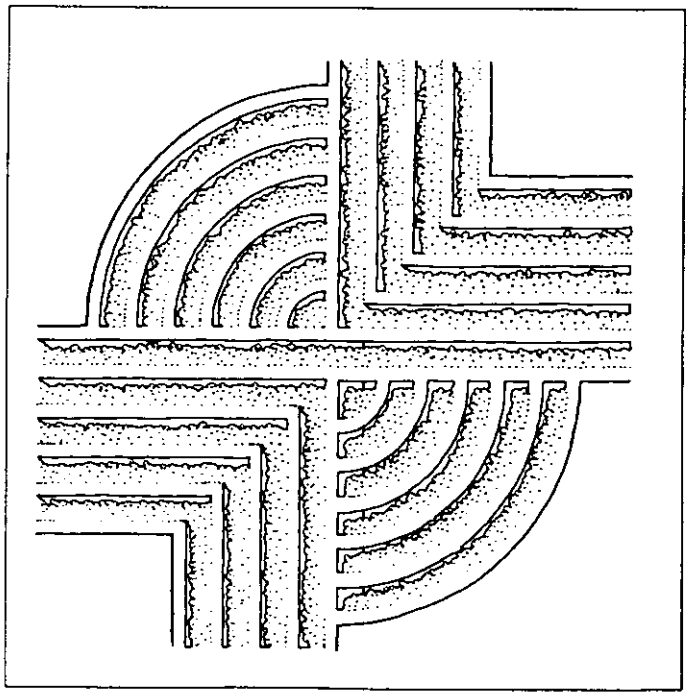
INTENSIVE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED GRAY'S HILL SCHOOL SITE, BEAUFORT COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 216

INTENSIVE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED GRAY'S HILL SCHOOL SITE, BEAUFORT COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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March 7, 1997

ABSTRACT

This report provides information on an intensive archaeological survey the proposed Gray's Hill or Whale Branch school site at the intersection of US 21 and Stuarts Point Road (S-70). The study was conducted at the request of the Beaufort County School District in compliance with the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance requiring an assessment of development tracts. The work was coordinated through Mr. Ed Watson with Construction Control Corporation of Columbia, South Carolina.

An initial survey was conducted on February 14, 1997 which identified a large and potentially important prehistoric and historic site on the proposed school site. This additional survey was designed to more fully explore that site and assess its eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The proposed school site includes about 56 acres situated on a low bluff overlooking the marshes of Whale Branch to the north. The area has been previously cultivated and also includes a pecan orchard. A significant portion of the acreage has been taken out of cultivation and planted in pines. There is one fallow field on the tract, although it appears that most of the land is used for hunting.

Historical research, while expanded from the initial reconnaissance phase, has focused on resources available at the Beaufort County Register of Mesne Conveyance, the South Caroliniana Library, and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History. The historical documentation of the tract has been hampered by Beaufort's loss of colonial and antebellum land records during the Civil War. Although period maps suggest colonial ownership by a Mr. Rupert, the earliest documented owner is by Captain John G. Barnwell. The tract, known as Ferry Plantation or Roupelmonde, was acquired through marriage by Middleton Stuart, a small Beaufort area planter. Although he lost the land during the Civil War, about 130 acres were restored in 1887. Not restored was a two acre tract bordering Stuart Point Road, which was to continue in use as a school for the freedmen. Also not restored to the Stuarts were about 530 acres of land previously sold by the Government to freedmen.

It appears that the most viable source for historic documentation concerning this plantation is likely the National Archives, especially their collections focusing on the District Tax Commission, the Freedmen's Bureau, and other records concerning land policies in the Beaufort area.

The intensive survey expanded the previous study, which used transects at 200 foot intervals, so that the entire tract was shovel tested on transects spaced 100 feet apart, with shovel tests every 100 feet. To provide additional density data, this coverage was supplemented with tests at 50 foot intervals in a variety of areas. A total of 389 shovel tests have been excavated on the study tract.

In addition, two 5-foot units have been excavated in different site areas. These tests, although widely spread across the very large tract, provide more detailed information on the range of artifacts present at the site, as well as site density, and soil profiles.

The previously identified site, 38BU1689, has been divided into seven areas based on this work:

- Areas 1 and 2 represent what appear to be late nineteenth and early twentieth century structures along Stuart Point Road.

- Area 3 is the large quantity of

prehistoric remains found across the entire site area.

- Areas 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 represent what appear to be distinct areas of the historic plantation settlement. Areas 4 and 5 represent two concentrations of architectural remains on the marsh shore which appear to be the remains of several structures. Present are fired bricks, tabby or mortar bricks, tabby, and what appears to be coquina. Area 6 consists of materials eroded into the marsh, originally from perhaps the main plantation area. Areas 7 and 8 are found further inland in the planted pines and appear to represent distinct structural or functional areas of the plantation.

The materials from Areas 1 and 2 are very sparse, including a few ceramics, glass fragments, occasional nails or bits of rusted metal, and little else. These areas of the site are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. No further management activities in these areas are recommended.

The materials from Area 3 — the prehistoric component of the site — include pottery, flakes, and several projectile points. All of the materials found are small, suggestive of extensive plow disturbance. These remains are also recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. No further management activities in this area is recommended.

The assemblage found at Areas 4, 5, 7, and 8 includes materials from both the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Distinct concentrations have been identified. Faunal remains are present at several of these areas. Artifact density is high and the range of materials is impressive. The presence of coquina as a building material has not been previously observed in the low country. Consequently, these specific site areas are recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. These areas should either be green spaced — with careful planning to avoid any potential of damage from either construction and subsequent school activities — or should be subjected to data recovery excavations.

Materials from Area 6, erosional deposits in the marsh, are recommended potentially eligible. A firm assessment was not made since this area is beyond the OCRM Critical Line. In addition, the investigation of this area would require more effort than was possible during the current study.

Although this investigation has been intensive, extensively investigating the school tract, there is always the possibility that additional archaeological remains may be encountered during construction. Consequently, we recommend that should construction crews encounter bricks, tabby, pottery, bottles, arrowheads, large concentrations of pottery, bones, or other archaeological remains that the work be suspended until the finds can be examined by a professional archaeologist.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

INTRODUCTION

Background and the Site Area

The Gray's Hill or Whale Branch School tract is situated about 15 miles north of Beaufort east of US 21 and north of Stuarts Point Road (S-70) (Figure 1). It is bordered by Whale Branch to the north, private land holdings consisting of a cultivated field to the east, Stuarts Point Road to the south, and US 21 to the west. The tract is reported to encompass 56 acres of high ground (Figure 2).

Although originally the entire tract was likely dominated by mixed hardwoods, particularly live oak and palmetto, today it includes a mixture of different ecological settings. Dominating the casual observer's perception of the property is a 5 acre pecan grove bordering Stuarts Point Road, a fallow field further northward (Figure 3), and large areas of planted pines (Figure 4). Also present, however, are small areas of mixed pines and hardwoods, as well as a narrow area along the marsh edge where the original maritime forest is still intact.

The tract is further altered by a variety of agricultural drainage ditches. Some of these appear to be fairly recent (i.e., twentieth century), while many more appear to date from the nineteenth century, based on the presence of large diameter trees growing on the associated dikes. Many of these ditches are clearly visible on the earliest aerial photograph available for the tract, dating from 1959. This image reveals a fairly young pecan grove, with the remainder of the tract in cultivated fields. All but two of the drains on the east edge of the tract are clearly visible in the photograph, with several extending to cultivated fields south of Stuarts Point Road. The photograph reveals only a narrow strip of intact maritime forest along the marsh edge.

Chicora Foundation was initially contacted by Mr. Ed Watson with Construction Control Corporation on January 3, 1997. Representing the Beaufort School District, he requested a proposal for a reconnaissance level archaeological survey. This study was requested in compliance with the Beaufort County Archaeological and Historic Impact Assessment Ordinance. A letter from Mr. Watson from Beaufort County Planning Director Summer L. Rutherford specified that after the completion of a reconnaissance study, "the Planning Director in consultation with professional compliance archaeologists, will make a determination as to whether or not an Intensive Level Survey should be completed or if some other course of action should be taken" (letter from Summer L. Rutherford to Ed Watson, dated November 27, 1996).

Chicora responded to Mr. Watson's RFP with a proposal on January 7. This was accepted by the Beaufort School District on February 3, 1997. The reconnaissance level investigation was conducted on February 11, 1997. As a result of that study, one archaeological site, 38BU1689, was identified on the tract. This site was found to consist of a broad range of both prehistoric and historic materials and an intensive archaeological survey was recommended (Trinkley 1997). This study was reviewed by the County, which concurred that the site was potentially significant and also recommended a more detailed investigation.

A proposal for an intensive survey was solicited and Chicora responded on February 20 outlining a intensive, Phase 1, survey. The proposal did not include Phase 2 testing, but it was hoped that with the earlier reconnaissance study that sufficient information could be collected to allow the site to be evaluated for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora's proposal was approved on February 24. Historic research was conducted on February 26 and 28, with the field investigations conducted on March 3 through 5, 1997. Approximately 84 person hours were spent on-site by the Principal Investigator,

Figure 1. Location of the survey tract in the Beaufort area (USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

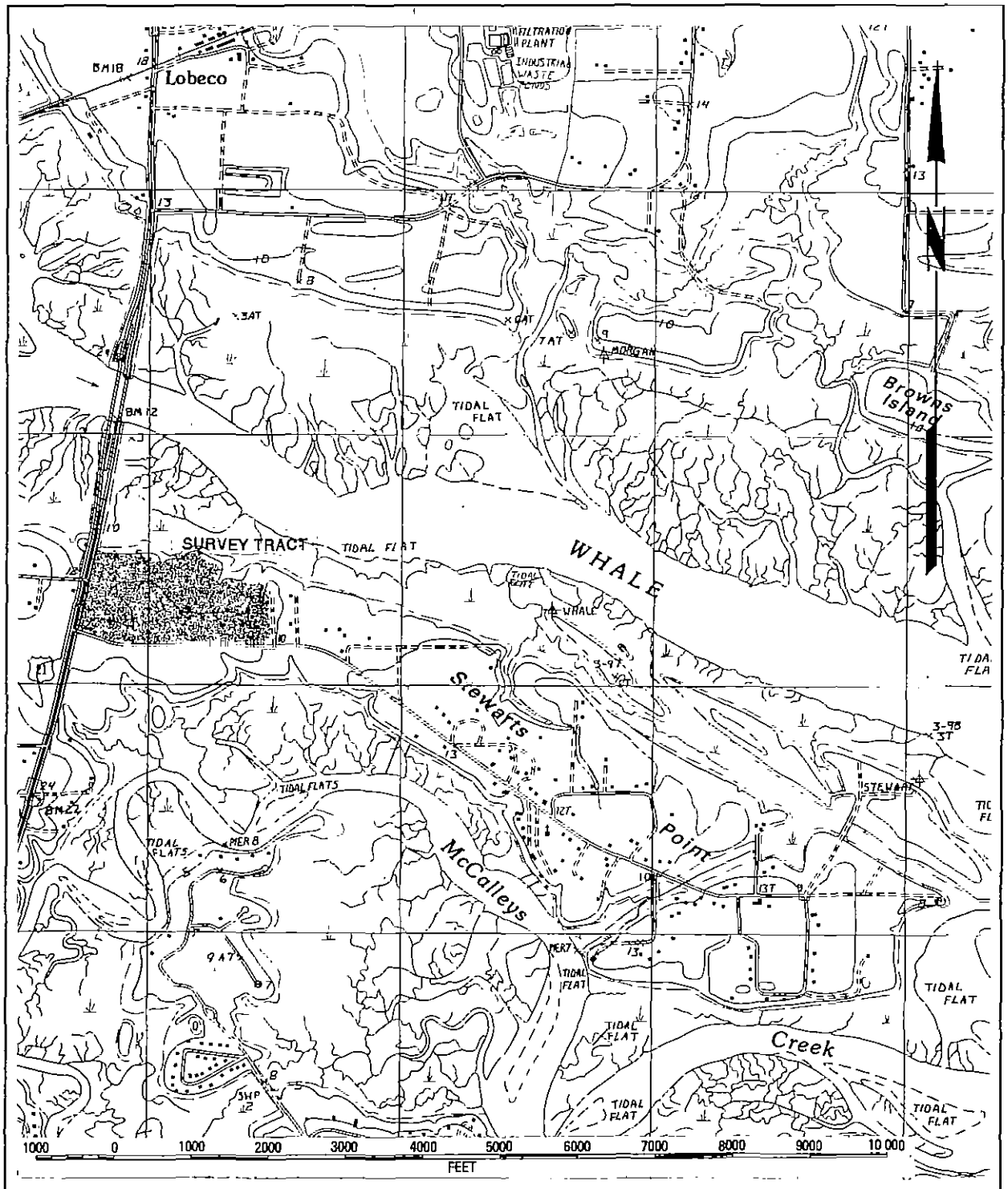

Figure 2. A portion of the USGS Dale topographic map showing the survey tract..

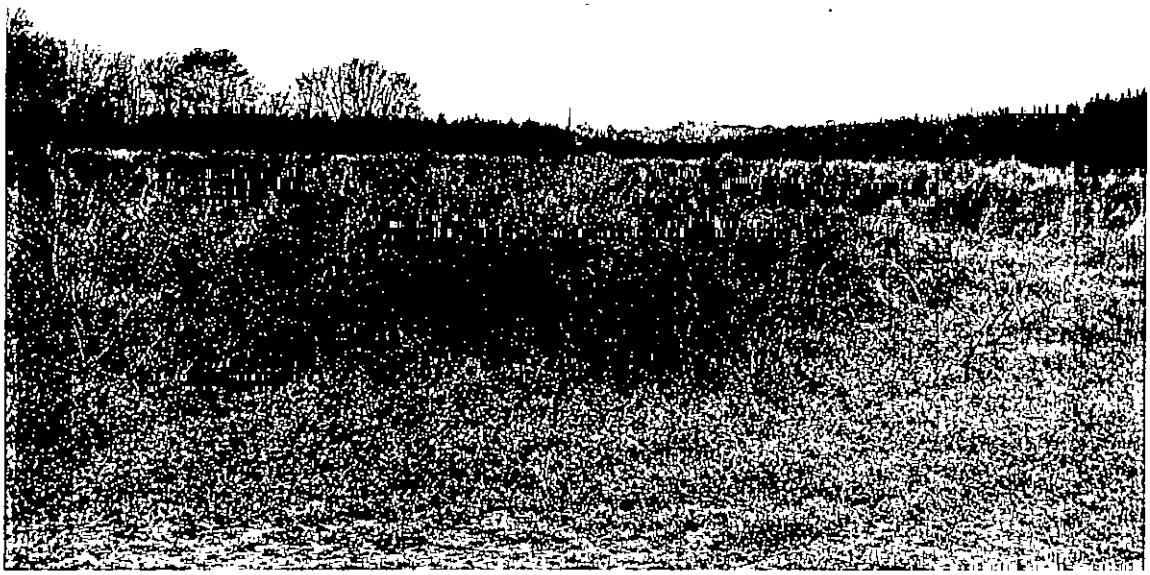

Figure 3. View of the central fallow field looking west toward U.S. 21.

Figure 4. View of an area of planted pines. This photograph also shows one of the survey cut lines used for our transect lines.

Dr. Michael Trinkley, and the field crew, Mr. John Hamer, Mr. Ian Hamer, Ms. Sabrina Buck, and Ms. Amy Dodenhoff.

The study tract has the shape of a rectangle, measuring about 2,200 feet along the northern marsh edge and along Stuarts Point Road, and about 1,100 feet along U.S. 21 on the western side and along the private parcels on the eastern side. There are two access roads, one from the south, just east of the pecan grove, which extends all the way through the tract to the marsh, and another from U.S. 21 at the north edge, which extends only a short distance before becoming overgrown. The map used for this study is a site plan dated February 5, 1997. While it does not include extant roads, it does provide detailed topography, as well as vegetation information. This has been used as the basemap for the figures in this study.

Natural Setting

Although originally the entire tract was likely dominated by mixed hardwoods, particularly live oak and palmetto, today it includes a mixture of different ecological settings. Dominating the casual observer's perception of the property is a modern (i.e., twentieth century) pecan grove planted along Stuarts Point Road.

As late as the 1980s, this tract was almost totally cultivated and the only feature besides the pecan grove which would likely have attracted attention might have been the agricultural drainage ditches. These generally flow north-south, emptying into the marsh, although there are also smaller feeder ditches running east-west. Some of these ditches appear modern and, in fact, are almost indistinct. Others, however, are very distinct and may have antebellum origins.

Elevations on the south edge of the tract, along Stuarts Point Road range from about 11 to 15 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). The ground slopes almost imperceptibly toward the marsh, where elevations range from about 7 to 8 feet AMSL. Along the marsh edge there are a few areas with upwards of a 3-foot bluff dropping into hard marsh, although more commonly there is only a foot or so drop. In fact, along the western marsh edge there is a major drainage ditch and dike, apparently constructed to prevent tidal flooding. The area of the most significant bluff is also an area subjected to noticeable tidal erosion in the center of this marsh frontage. Upwards of 100 to 120 feet may have eroded in the past 100 to 200 years. At least part of this erosion may have been man-induced since we speculate that this may have served as the plantation landing.

The topography is generally reflected in the soil survey for the tract. Both Coosaw loamy fine sands and also Chisolm loamy fine sands are found in the study area. The Chisolm soils are well drained and exhibit an Ap horizon of grayish brown (10YR5/2) sand about 0.8 to 0.9 foot in depth overlying a B horizon of yellowish red (5YR5/8) sandy clay loam (Stuck 1980:65). They are found in the center of the study tract, associated with the densest concentrations of prehistoric and historic remains. The Coosaw soils are somewhat poorly drained and typically have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) sand about 0.7 foot in depth which grades into a brownish yellow (10YR6/6) sand (Stuck 1980:65). It is the areas of Coosaw soil which are dominated by the tract's ditch network. In spite of being less well drained, historic and prehistoric remains were found on these soils (Figure 5).

Mathews et al. (1980) suggest that the most significant ecosystem on Port Royal Island is the maritime forest community. This maritime ecosystem is defined most simply as all upland areas located on barrier islands, limited on the ocean side by tidal marshes. On sea islands the distinction between the maritime forest community and an upland ecosystem (essentially found on the mainland) becomes blurred. Sandifer et al. (1980:108-109) define our subsystems, including the sand spits and bars, dunes, transition shrub, and maritime forest. Of these, only the maritime forest subsystem is likely to have been significant to either the prehistoric or historic occupants. While the subsystem is frequently characterized by the dominance of live oaks and the presence of salt spray, these are less noticeable on the sea islands than they are on the narrower barrier islands (Sandifer et al. 1980:120).

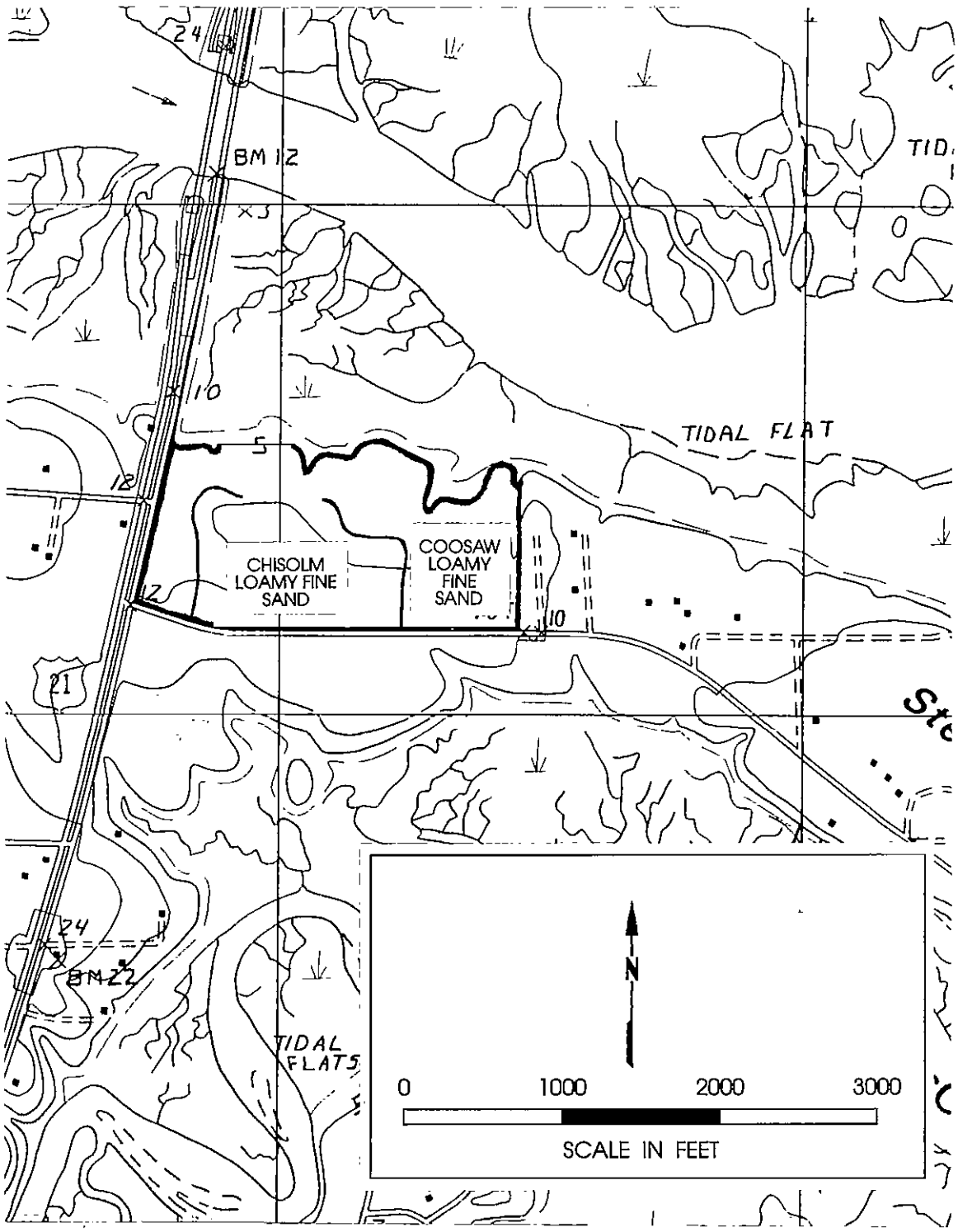

Figure 5. Soils associated with the survey tract.

The islands may contain communities of oak-pine, oak-palmetto-pine, oak-magnolia, palmetto, or low oak woods. Often the larger islands are more mesic or xeric and tend to evidence field communities, pine-mixed hardwood communities, pine forest communities, or mixed hardwood communities (Sandifer et al. 1980:120-121, 437).

Robert Mills, discussing Beaufort District in the early nineteenth century, stated:

> besides a fine growth of pine, we have the cypress, red cedar, and live oak . . . white oak, red oak, and several other oaks, hickory, plum, palmetto, magnolia, poplar, beech, birch, ash, dogwood, black mulberry, etc. Of fruit trees we have the orange, sweet and sour, peach, nectarine, fig, cherry (Mills 1826:377).

He also cautioned, however, that "some parts of the district are beginning already to experience a want of timber, even for common purposes" (Mills 1826:383) and suggested that at least 25% of a plantation's acreage should be reserved for woods.

Edmund Ruffin commented on the topography, soils, and agriculture of the project area in 1843, explaining:

> The next ferry, over the Coosaw, (salt water here,) took us into Port Royal Island, & 10 more miles thence, mostly over pine barrens, & some inferior cotton lands, brought us to the town of Beaufort (Mathew 1992:122).

Clearly he was unimpressed with the agricultural potential of this portion of St. Helena Parish. This is indirectly supported by a tax appraisement for the lands, which placed the property in a middling class (discussed below). Mills also noted that lands in the Beaufort District ranged in value from $60 an acre to as low as 25¢ an acre (Mills 1972:372 [1824]). It seems likely that lands suffered from either too much moisture or not enough.

Curation

The original and duplicate field notes, and artifacts resulting from Chicora Foundation's survey have been curated with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

The artifacts from this study have been cataloged using the standard system of the Institute. They have been cleaned and/or conserved as necessary and are packed in polyethylene zip-locks for permanent curation. All records were provided to the curatorial facility on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper. Both black and white and color print photographs were taken during this study. The black and white negatives have been processed to archival standards and are curated with the collections and field records. The color prints, because of their long-term instability, are being retained in the Chicora project files and not curated.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNTHESIS

Previous Investigations

At the initiation of the previous reconnaissance level investigation, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History was contacted with a request that they check of their master topographic maps to locate any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. In addition, we requested a check to determine the results of any structures surveys which may have been completed in the study area. Dr. Tracy Power of that agency reported that there were no recorded sites for the project area (Dr. Tracy Power, personal communication 1997). In addition, Ms. Rachel Brinson-Marrs of the Foundation staff examined the State Site Files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology to confirm that no archaeological sites had been previously identified on the tract.

In addition, we examined the previously conducted cartographic survey of Beaufort County (Hacker and Trinkley 1992), discovering that the school tract was situated on the same land as what appears to be a major plantation settlement. In the eighteenth century the settlement was occupied by Rupert. By the middle of the nineteenth century the plantation had been acquired by Stuart (Hacker and Trinkley 1992:25).

The reconnaissance level investigation, because of the dense vegetation on the tract and limited surface visibility, relied on the use of shovel testing at 100 foot intervals on transects spaced 200 feet apart (Trinkley 1997). The fill from these shovel tests was screened through ¼-inch mesh and all recovered material was retained, except for brick, mortar, and shell, which was noted and discarded in the field. The tests were numbered sequentially on each transect line, with the numbers running from one beginning at the road. The transect lines were numbered sequentially from 1 to 12, running from the eastern side of the tract to the west. A total of 121 shovel tests were excavated.

Prehistoric remains included examples of Deptford Plain, Cord Marked, Fabric Impressed, and Simple Stamped pottery, Savannah Check Stamped pottery, a fragment of a rhyolite Savannah River Stemmed projectile point, a quartz Clarksville projectile point, and several flakes.

The historic remains found during the survey include a small assemblage of early to mid-eighteenth century wares, such as delft and lead glazed slipware, as well as late eighteenth century material such as creamware, and a range of nineteenth century wares, such as pearlware and whiteware. Other historic materials recovered include "black" bottle glass, kaolin pipe stem and bowl fragments, window glass, and machine cut nails.

As a result of the reconnaissance level investigation, coupled with a review of basic historic sources, archaeological site 38BU1689 was identified. The presence of lithics in the prehistoric assemblage and the presence of a potentially intact plantation assemblage from the northern edge of what was St. Helena Parish (an area which has received very little previous archaeological attention) suggested that this site is significant and worthy of additional investigation. Consequently, an intensive archaeological survey was recommended, if this site was to be actively considered for construction or development.

Prehistoric Synthesis

There have been a number of studies prepared for the Beaufort area, and Derting et al. (1991:47-77) list 225 in their bibliography of South Carolina archaeology. There are a variety of excellent archaeological studies for the general project area which should be consulted (see especially Trinkley and Adams 1994 for an overview of previous research and Anderson et al.

(1996) for a synthesis of current thought regarding the Woodland Period along the Carolina coast.

Paleoindian and Archaic Periods

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drill (Coe 1964; Goodyear et al. 1989; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Sea level during much of this period is expected to have been as much as 65 feet lower than present, so many sites may be inundated (Flint 1971). Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10). Brooks and Scurry note that:

> Archaic period sites, when contrasted with the subsequent Woodland period, are typically small, relatively few in number and contain low densities of archaeological material. The data may indicate that the inter-riverine zone was utilized by Archaic populations characterized by small group size, high mobility, and wide ranging exploitative patterns (Brooks and Scurry 1978:44).

Alternatively, the general sparsity of Archaic sites in the coastal zone may be the result of a more attractive environment inland adjacent to the floodplain swamps of major drainages. Of course, this is not necessarily an alternative explanation, since coastal Archaic sites may represent only a small segment in the total settlement system.

Early Woodland

The earliest phase of the Woodland period (see Figure 6) is called Stallings, after the type site excavated by the Cosgroves in 1929 (Claflin 1931). These "Stallings Island people" produced a rich cultural assemblage of bone and antler work, polished stone items, grooved and perforated "net sinkers" or steatite disks, stone tools (including projectile points, knives, scrapers, and cruciform drills), and fiber tempered pottery (see also Williams 1968). It was over a decade before the typological significance of the Stallings ware was recognized and a formal type description was offered (Fairbanks 1942; Griffin 1943). The definitive feature of this pottery is its large quantity of fiber, now identified as Spanish Moss (Simpkins and Scoville 1981), included in the paste prior to firing. one aspect of the Stallings settlement system. Another portion of that system is represented by Stallings sites which evidence little shell. While many of these are sparse scatters, such as Clear Mount (Stoltman 1974) and Pinckney Island (Trinkley 1981b), some evidence intensive occupation with features and a rich cultural assemblage, such as the Love (38AL10; Trinkley 1974) and Fish Haul (38BU805; Trinkley 1986) sites.

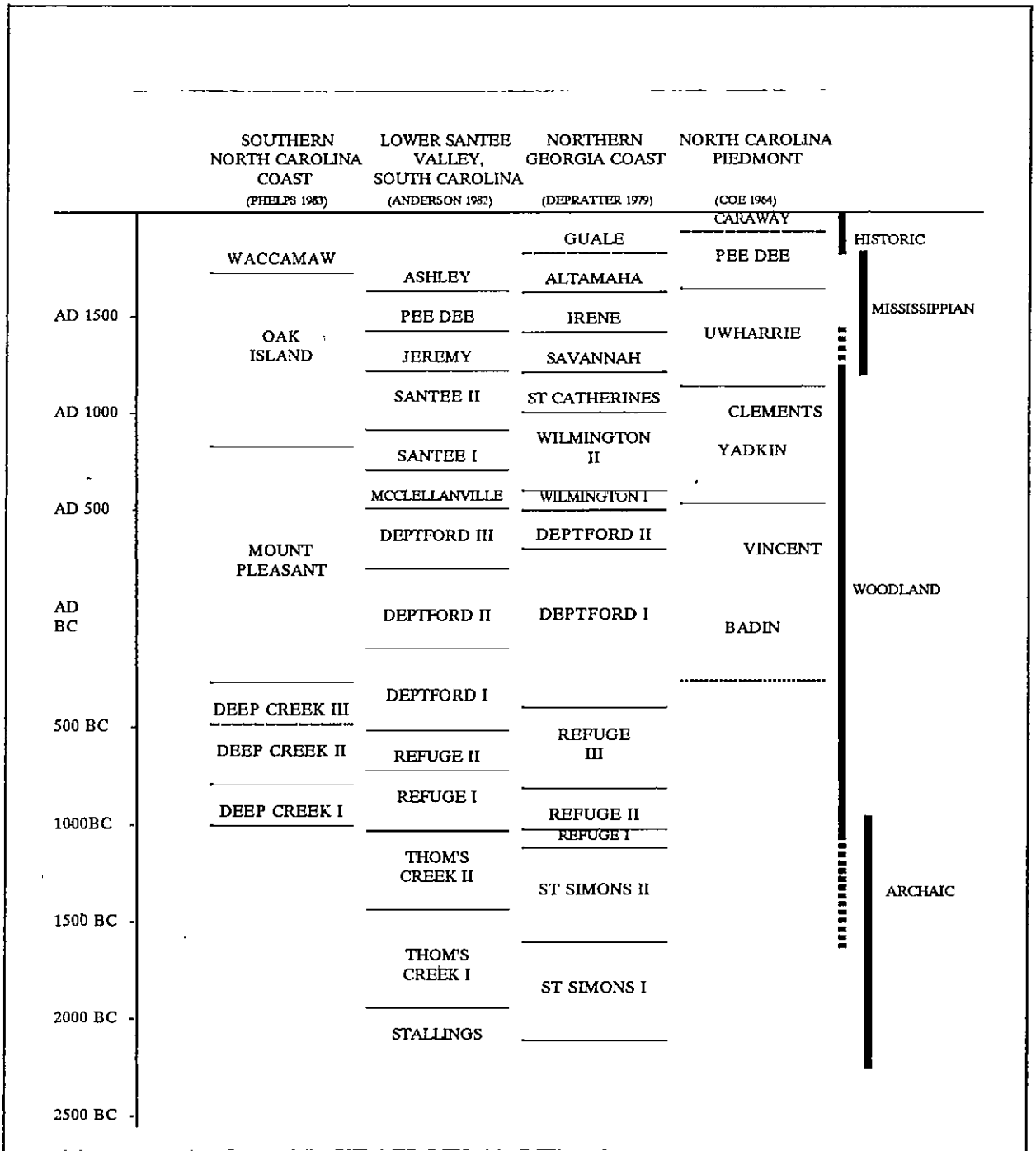

Figure 6. Woodland Period phases in the South Carolina locality.

The elaborate Savannah River drainage sites such as Stallings Island, Fennel Hill, Rabbit Mount, and Bilbo, are all characterized by large quantities of either fresh water mussels or tidal oysters, large quantities of artifacts, and abundant features. These middens, however, represent only one aspect of the Stallings settlement system. Another portion of that system is represented by Stallings sites which evidence little shell. While many of these are sparse scatters, such as Clear Mount (Stoltman 1974) and Pinckney Island (Trinkley 1981b), some evidence intensive occupation, such as the Love (38AL10; Trinkley 1974) and Fish Haul (38BU805; Trinkley 1986) sites.

At the Fish Haul site a Stallings phase "D"-shaped structure containing about 90 square feet of floor area has been identified (Trinkley 1986:145-147) and Stoltman (1974:51-54) recovered a lean-to structure at Rabbit Mount. The function of essentially non-shell midden sites such as Love and Fish Haul is only partially understood at present, although shellfish seasonality and ethnobotanical studies (Claassen 1986; Lawrence 1986; Trinkley 1986) are beginning to suggest late fall and winter occupation. These may represent early sites when the subsistence base was diffuse, prior to intensive riverine and estuarine exploitation. Alternatively, and more likely, they may represent a seasonal round in the Stallings settlement system. Riverine shellfish may have been gathered in the fall when the Savannah River and its tributaries were low and clear, while other resources away from the river were exploited during the period of high discharge in the late winter and spring (Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985:13). Additional work within the Savannah drainage is necessary to understand more fully the relationship between large shell middens, dense non-shell upland and coastal sites, and sparse upland and coastal "scatters."

The following Thom's Creek phase dates as early as 2220±350 B.C. (UGA-584) from Spanish Mount in Charleston County (Sutherland 1974) and continues to at least 935±175 B.C. (UGA-2901), based on a date from the Lighthouse Point Shell Ring, also in Charleston County (Trinkley 1980b:191-192). The Thom's Creek phase is characterized by an artifact assemblage almost identical to that of Stallings sites. The only major differences include the replacement of fiber tempering with sand, or a clay not requiring tempering, and the gradual reduction of projectile point size.

Thom's Creek pottery, first typed by Griffin (1945), consists of sandy paste pottery decorated with the motifs common to the Stallings series, including punctations (reed and shell), finger pinching, simple stamping, incising, and very late in the phase, finger smoothed (Trinkley 1980a). Investigations at the Lighthouse Point and Stratton Place shell rings, stratigraphic studies at Spanish Mount and Fig Island, radiocarbon dates from Lighthouse Point and Venning Creek, and the study of surface collections from a number of sites, have suggested a temporal ordering of the Thom's Creek series. Reed punctated pottery appears to be the oldest, followed by the shell punctated and finger pinched motifs. Late in the Thom's Creek phase, perhaps by 1000 B.C., there is the addition of Thom's Creek Finger Smoothed (Trinkley 1983a:44). Vessel forms include deep, straight sided jars and shallow conoidal bowls. Lip treatments are simple, and coiling fractures are common. Firing of the Thom's Creek vessels is certainly better than that evidenced for Stallings, but there continues to be abundant incompletely oxidized specimens.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia. There appears to be strong concentration of Thom's Creek sites in the Santee River drainage and the central South Carolina coast (see Anderson 1975:184).

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas

and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens; small middens with only sparse shell; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

Limited testing has been conducted at one small Thom's Creek non-shell midden on Sol Legare Island (38CH779) in Charleston County, South Carolina (Trinkley 1984). The site evidenced very limited reliance on shellfish and faunal remains, with the bulk of the food remains consisting of large mammals. Excavations also identified a portion of a probable Thom's Creek post structure situated about 180 feet inland from the marsh edge.

Excavations at other Coastal Zone Thom's Creek sites includes the work by Sutherland (1973, 1974) at the Spanish Mount shell midden (38CH62). While this work has never been completely published, the site appears to represent a seasonally occupied camp with a diffuse subsistence base, including reliance on shellfish, floral material, fish, and mammals.

By far the most work has been conducted at Thom's Creek phase shell rings (see Trinkley 1980b, 1985). These sites are circular middens about 130 to 300 feet in diameter, 2 to 6 feet in height, and 40 feet in width at their bases, with clear interiors. These doughnut-shaped accumulations were formed as small mounds, arranged around an open ground area, and gradually blended together. The ring itself is composed of varying proportions of shell, animal bone, pottery, soil, and other artifacts. These shell rings were apparently mundane occupation sites for fairly large social units which lived on the ring, disposed of garbage underfoot, and used the clear interiors as areas for communal activities. The sites further suggest relatively permanent, stable village life as early as 1600 B.C., with a subsistence base oriented toward large and small mammals, fish, shellfish, and hickory nut resources (Trinkley 1985).

Following Stallings and Thom's Creek are the Refuge and Deptford phases, both strongly associated with the Georgia sequence and the Savannah drainage (DePratter 1979; Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). The Refuge Phase, dated from 1070±115 B.C. (QC-784) to 510±100 B.C. (QC-785), is found primarily along the South Carolina coast from the Savannah drainage as far north as the Santee River (Williams 1968:208). Anderson (1975:184) further notes an apparent concentration of Refuge sites in the Coastal Plain, particularly along the Santee River.

The Refuge series pottery is similar in many ways to the preceding Thom's Creek wares. The paste is compact and sandy or gritty, while surface treatments include sloppy simple stamped, dentate stamped, and random punctate decorations (see DePratter 1979:115-123; Williams 1968:198-208). Anderson et al. note that these typologies are "marred by a lack of reference to the Thom's Creek series" (Anderson et al. 1982:265) and that the Refuge Punctate and Incised types are indistinguishable from Thom's Creek wares. Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as both a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and also as a bridge to the succeeding Deptford series.

It is difficult to reconstruct the subsistence base, although the sites suggest small, seasonal camps for small groups (Trinkley 1982). The settlement fragmentation, which began at the end of the Thom's Creek phase, around 1000 B.C., probably relates to the increase in sea level, from a Thom's Creek phase low of 10 feet below the current high marsh surface at 1200 B.C. to a high of about 3 feet below the current high marsh surface at 950 B.C. (Colquhoun et al. 1980; Brooks et al. 1989). This increasing sea level drowned the tidal marshes (and sites) on which the Thom's Creek people relied. The following Refuge phase evidences the fragmentation necessary when the environment which gave rise to large sedentary populations disappeared. Hanson (1982:21-23), based on Savannah River data, suggests that subsistence stress present during the Thom's Creek phase may have resulted in an expansion of the settlement system into diverse environmental settings. It seems likely, however, that the development of mature, upland tributaries was also essential ingredient in this process (see Sassaman et al. 1989). This same "splintering" is observed on

the South Carolina coast.

The Deptford culture takes its name from the type site located east of Savannah, Georgia, which was excavated in the mid-1930s (Caldwell 1943:12-16). Deptford phase sites are best recognized by the presence of fine to course sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. This pottery is typically in the form of a cylindrical vessel with a conoidal base. The flat bottomed bowl with tetrapodal supports found at Deptford sites along the Florida Gulf coast (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:79) is very rare in South Carolina. Other Deptford phase pottery styles include cord marking, simple stamping, a complicated stamping which resembles early Swift Creek, and a geometric stamping which consists of a series of carved triangles or diamonds with interior dots (see Anderson et al. 1982:277-293; DePratter 1979).

The Deptford technology is little better known than that of the preceding Refuge phase. Shell tools are uncommon, bone tools are "extremely rare" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:77), and stone tools are rare on Coastal Zone sites. All of this indicates to some researchers that "wood must have been worked into a variety of tool types" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75). One type of stone tool associated with South Carolina Deptford sites is a very small, stemmed projectile point tentatively described as "Deptford Stemmed" (Trinkley 1980c:20-23). This point is the culmination of the Savannah River Stemmed reduction seen in the Thom's Creek and Refuge phases. Also found at Deptford sites are "medium-sized triangular points," probably similar to the Yadkin Triangular point (Coe 1964:45, 47, 49; Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75-76).

Perhaps of even greater interest is the co-occurrence of the larger triangular points (such as Badin and Yadkin) with smaller triangular forms (such as Caraway) traditionally attributed to the Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian periods. This situation has been reported at Coastal Plain sites (Blanton et al. 1986:107), Savannah River sites (Sassaman et al. 1989:157), and Coastal Zone sites (Trinkley 1990). Blanton et al. (1986) suggest that these point types were used at the same time, but perhaps for different tasks.

The traditional view of an estuarine Deptford adaptation with minor interior occupations must be re-evaluated based on the Savannah River drainage work of Brooks and Hanson (1987) and Sassaman et al. (1989:293-295) who suggest larger residential base camps and foraging zones along the Savannah River, coupled with smaller, household residences and foraging zones in the uplands along small tributaries.

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing (see Trinkley 1987). Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1960). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina, based on two radiocarbon dates of 120±130 B.C. (QC-1358) and A.D. 210±110 (QC-1357). The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

Middle Woodland

Although the Deptford phase is discussed as part of the Early Woodland, many authors place

the phase intermediate between the Early and Middle Woodland (see, for example, Anderson et al. 1982:28, 250). Such an approach is not unreasonable, because Deptford exhibits considerable temporal range and cultural adaptations which are more characteristically Middle Woodland (see also Anderson 1985:53). The Deptford phase, however, is still part of the early carved paddle stamped tradition which is replaced by the posited northern intrusion of wrapped paddle stamping during the Middle Woodland. Clearly the Deep Creek pottery, at the same time period as Deptford, is part of this "Northern Tradition," yet the Deep Creek, on temporal grounds, is considered Early Woodland by Phelps (1983:17, 29). This is meant simply to indicate that the transition from Early to Middle Woodland is not as clear as one might wish.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. Wilmington and Hanover may be viewed as regional varieties of the same ceramic tradition. The pottery is characterized almost solely by its crushed sherd (perhaps with grog as well) temper which makes up 30 to 40% of the paste and which ranges in size from 3 to 10 mm. Wilmington was first described by Caldwell and Waring (Williams 1968:113-116) from coastal Georgia work, while the Hanover description was offered by South (1960), based on a survey of the Southeastern coast of North Carolina (with incursions into South Carolina). The Wilmington phase was seen by Waring (Williams 1968:221) as intrusive from the Carolina coast, but there is considerable evidence for the inclusion of Deptford traits in the Wilmington series. For example, Caldwell and McCann (1940:n.p.) noted that, "the Wilmington complex proper contains all of the main kinds of decoration which occur in the Deptford complex with the probable exception of Deptford Linear Checkstamped" (see also Anderson et al. 1982:275). Consequently, surface treatments of cord marking, check stamping, simple stamping, and fabric impressing may be found with sherd tempered paste.

Sherd tempered Wilmington and Hanover wares are found from at least the Chowan River in North Carolina southward onto the Georgia coast. Anderson (1975:187) has found the Hanover series evenly distributed over the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, although it appears slightly more abundant north of the Edisto River. The heartland may be along the inner Coastal Plain north of the Cape Fear River in North Carolina. Radiocarbon dates for Wilmington and Hanover range from 135±85 B.C. (UM-1916) from site 38BK134 to A.D. 1120±100 (GX-2284) from a "Wilmington House" at the Charles Towne Landing site, 38CH1. Most dates, however, cluster from A.D. 400 to 900; some researchers prefer a date range of about 200 B.C. to A.D. 500 (Anderson et al. 1982:276).

Largely contemporaneous with the sherd tempered wares are what have been termed the Mount Pleasant, McClellanville, and Santee series. The Mount Pleasant series has been developed by Phelps from work along the northeastern North Carolina coast (Phelps 1983:32-35, 1984:41-44) and is a Middle Woodland refinement of South's (1960) previous Cape Fear series. The pottery is characterized by a sandy paste either with or without quantities of rounded pebbles. Surface treatments include fabric impressed, cord marked, and net impressed. Vessels are usually conoidal, although simple, hemispherical, and globular bowls are also present. The Mount Pleasant series is found from North Carolina southward to the Savannah River (being evidenced by the "Untyped Series" in Trinkley 1981b). North Carolina dates for the series range from A.D. 265±65 (UGA-1088) to A.D. 890±80 (UGA-3849). The several dates currently available from South Carolina (such as UGA-3512 of A.D. 565±70 from Pinckney Island) fall into this range of about A.D. 200 to 900.

The McClellanville (Trinkley 1981a) and Santee (Anderson et al. 1982:302-308) series are found primarily on the north central coast of South Carolina and are characterized by a fine to medium sandy paste ceramic with surface treatment of primarily v-shaped simple stamping. While the two pottery types are quite similar, it

appears that the Santee series may have later features, such as excurvate rims and interior rim stamping, not so-far observed in the McClellanville series. The Santee series is placed at A.D. 800 to 1300 by Anderson et al. (1982:303), while the McClellanville ware may be slightly earlier, perhaps A.D. 500 to 800. Anderson et al. (1982:302-304; see also Anderson 1985) provide a detailed discussion of the Santee Series and its possible relationships with the McClellanville Series. Anderson, based on the Santee area data from Mattassee Lake, indicates that there is evidence for the replacement of fabric impressed pottery by simple stamping about A.D. 800 (David G. Anderson, personal communication 1990). This may suggest that McClellanville and Santee wares are closely related, both typologically and culturally. Also probably related is the little known Camden Series (Stuart 1975) found in the inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are known from the Mount Pleasant phase.

These Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In terms of settlement patterns, several researchers have offered some conclusions based on localized data. Michie (1980:80), for example, correlates rising sea levels with the extension of Middle Woodland shell middens further up the Port Royal estuary. Scurry and Brooks (1980:75-78) find the Middle Woodland site patterning in the Wando River affected not only by the sea level fluctuations, but also by soil types (see also Trinkley 1980b:445-446). They suggest that the strong soil correlation is the result of upland sites having functioned as extraction areas, principally for exploitation of acorns, hickory nuts, and deer. Shell midden sites, they suggest, also represent seasonal camps and therefore exhibit small size, low artifact density, and infrequent re-occupation. Ward's (1978) work in Marlboro County suggests that interior site patterning changed little from the Early to Middle Woodland. Sites continue to be found on the low, sandy ridges overlooking hardwood swamp floodplains, which suggests that while pottery styles changed, site locations, and presumably subsistence, did not (see also Ferguson 1976). Drucker and Anthony's (1978) work in Florence County, South Carolina reveals virtually continuous short-term occupation along the terraces associated with the floodplain of Lynch's Lake. DePratter's work at the Dunlap site, however, suggests that a few, relatively stable villages were present in the Middle Woodland.

Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1989:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Along the central and northern South Carolina coast, Anderson et al. (1982:303-304) suggest a continuation of the Santee series into the Late Woodland. The Hanover and Mount Pleasant series may also be found as late of A.D. 1000. Along the southeastern North Carolina coast, South (1960) has defined the Oak Island complex, which is best known for its shell tempered ceramics

with cord marked, fabric impressed, simple stamped, and net impressed surface finishes. The phase is briefly discussed by Phelps (1983:48-49), but curiously this manifestation is almost unknown south of the Little River in South Carolina. Very little is known about the northern coastal South Carolina Late Woodland complexes, although sites such as 38GE32 may document the occurrence of village life in the Late Woodland.

The South Appalachian Mississippian is typically characterized by the construction of truncated temple mounds, reliance on cultivated crops, the development of a social elite, and complicated stamped pottery. The best information for the coastal area comes from the only incompletely reported excavations at the Charles Town Landing site (South 1971). In addition, Anderson (1989) provides an excellent synthesis of Mississippian research in South Carolina, observing that "while we have a fair appreciation for the culmination of the Mississippian in South Carolina, its origins and immediate Woodland antecedents remains largely unknown at the present" (Anderson 1989:114; see also Anderson 1994).

Anderson also notes the need for additional research in the area of:

> relationships between Woodland and Mississippian occupations in South Carolina, particularly the mechanisms bringing about the transition between the seemingly markedly dissimilar forms of social organization and subsistence adaptation (Anderson 1989:113).

While Trinkley (1981a, 1983a, 1983b) has offered a cultural sequence for the Mississippian remains in the coastal area that encompasses the Jeremy, "classic" Pee Dee, "post-classic" Pee Dee, Wachesaw, and Kimbel series, Anderson et al. (1982:312-319) offers an alternative perspective incorporating Pee Dee and Ashley wares.

Protohistoric

The history of the numerous small coastal Indian tribes is poorly known. As Mooney noted, the coastal tribes:

> were of but small importance politically; no sustained mission work was ever attempted among them, and there were but few literary men to take an interest in them. War, pestilence, whiskey and systematic slave hunts had nearly exterminated the aboriginal occupants of the Carolinas before any body had thought them of sufficient importance to ask who they were, how they lived, or what were their beliefs and opinions (Mooney 1894:6).

In truth, our knowledge of these groups has also been limited because too few scholars have taken an active interest in the primary sources and there has been too little desire to evaluate critically the early research by Mooney (1894) and Swanton (1952). For South Carolina Anderson (1989:117-118) briefly notes the current status of ethnohistoric research.

Historic Synopsis

The Spanish and French

The first Spanish explorations in the Carolina low country were conducted in the 1520s under the direction of Lucas Vasquez de Ayllon and Francisco Gordillo. One of the few areas explored by Gordillo which can be identified with any certainty is Santa Elena (St. Helena). Apparently Port Royal Sound was entered and land fall made at Santa Elena on Santa Elena's Day, August 18, 1520. "Cape Santa Elena," according to Quattlebaum (1956:8) was probably Hilton Head (Hoffman 1984:423).

Gordillo's accounts spurred Ayllon to seek a royal commission both to explore further the land and to establish a settlement in the land called Chicora (Quattlebaum 1956:12-17). In July 1526 Ayllon set sail for Chicora with a fleet of six vessels and has been thought to have established the settlement of San Miguel del Galdape in the

vicinity of Winyah Bay (Quattlebaum 1956:23). Hoffman (1984:425) has more recently suggested that the settlement was at the mouth of the Santee River (Ayllon's Jordan River). Ferguson (n.d.:1) has suggested that San Miguel was established at Santa Elena in the Port Royal area. More recently, scholars have suggested that the settlement was on the Georgia coast, in the vicinity of St. Catherines Island (Rowland et al. 1996). Regardless, the colony was abandoned in the winter of 1526 with the survivors reaching Hispaniola in 1527 (Quattlebaum 1956:27).

The French, in response to increasing Spanish activity in the New World, undertook a settlement in the land of Chicora in 1562. Charlesfort was established in May 1562 under the direction of Jean Ribaut. This settlement fared no better than the earlier Spanish fort of San Miguel and was abandoned within the year (Quattlebaum 1956:42-56). Ribaut was convinced that his settlement was on the Jordan River in the vicinity of Ayllon's Chicora (Hoffman 1984:432). Recent historical and archaeological studies suggest that Charlesfort may have been situated on Port Royal Island in the vicinity of the Town of Port Royal (South 1982a, see also Rowland et al. 1996:23). The deserted Charlesfort was burned by the Spanish in 1564 (South 1982a:1-2). A year later France's second attempt to establish its claim in the New World was thwarted by the Spanish destruction of the French Fort Caroline on the St. John's River. The massacre at Fort Caroline ended French attempts at colonization on the southeast Atlantic coast.

To protect against any future French intrusion such as Charlesfort, the Spanish proceeded to establish a major outpost in the Beaufort area. The town of Santa Elena was built in 1566, a year after a fort was built in St. Augustine. Three sequential forts were constructed: Fort San Salvador (1566-1570), Fort San Felipe (1570-1576), and Fort San Marcos (1577-1587). In spite of Indian hostilities and periodic burning of the town and forts, the Spanish maintained this settlement until 1587 when it was finally abandoned (South 1979, 1982a, 1982b). Spanish influence, however, continued through a chain of missions spreading up the Atlantic coast from St. Augustine into Georgia. That mission activity, however, declined noticeably during the eighteenth century, primarily because of 1702 and 1704 attacks on St. Augustine and outlying missions by South Carolina Governor James Moore (Deagan 1983:25-26, 40).

The British Proprietory Period

British influence in the New World began in the fifteenth century with the Cabot voyages, but the southern coast did not attract serious attention until King Charles II granted Carolina to the Lords Proprietors in 1663. In August 1663 William Hilton sailed from Barbados to explore the Carolina territory, spending a great deal of time in the Port Royal area (Holmgren 1959). Almost chosen for the first English colony, Hilton Head Island was passed over by Sir John Yeamans in favor of the more protected Charles Town site on the west bank of the Ashley River in 1670 (Clowse 1971:23-24; Holmgren 1959:39).

Like other European powers, the English were lured to the New World for reasons other than the acquisition of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth through the mercantile system, which was designed to profit the mother country by providing raw materials unavailable in England (Clowse 1971). Charleston was settled by English citizens, including a number from Barbados, and by Huguenot refugees. Black slaves were brought directly from Africa, as well as Barbados.

The Charleston settlement was moved from the mouth of the Ashley River to the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers in 1680, but the colony was a thorough disappointment to the Proprietors. It failed to grow as expected, did not return the anticipated profit, and failed to evidence workable local government (Ferris 1968:124-125). The early economy was based almost exclusively on Indian trade, naval stores, lumber, and cattle. Rice began emerging as a money crop in the late seventeenth century, but did not markedly improve the economic well-being of the colony until the eighteenth century (Clowse

1971).

Meanwhile, Scottish Covenanters under Lord Cardross established Stuart's Town on Scot's Island (Port Royal) in 1684, where it existed for four years until destroyed by the Spanish. It was not until 1698 that the area was again occupied by the English. Both John Stuart and Major Robert Daniell took possession of lands on St. Helena and Port Royal islands. The town of Beaufort was founded in 1711 although it was not immediately settled. Spring Island was granted to John Cockran in 1706 in two parcels of 500 acres each (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Colonial Series, Royal Grants, volume 39, page 6). One grant mentions that the land is "part of an Island over against Alatamaha Town."

While most of the Beaufort Indian groups were persuaded to move to Polawana Island in 1712, the Yemassee, part of the Creek Confederacy, revolted in 1715. By 1718 the Yemassee were defeated and forced southward to Spanish protection. Consequently, the Beaufort area, known as St. Helena Parish, Granville County, was for the first time relatively safe from both the Spanish and the Indians. The Yemassee, however, continued occasional raids into South Carolina, such as the 1728 destruction of the Passage Fort at Bloody Point on Daufuskie Island (Starr 1984:16). In the same year the English raid on St. Augustine succeeded in breaking the Spanish influence and the remnant Indian groups made peace with the English. The results for the Beaufort area, however, were mixed. While there was a semblance of peace, frontier settlements were largely deserted, population growth was slow, and the Indian trade was diverted from Beaufort to Savannah.

The British Colonial Period

Although peace marked the Carolina colony, the Proprietors continued to have disputes with the populace, primarily over the colony's economic stagnation and deterioration. In 1727 the colony's government virtually broke down when the Council and the Commons were unable to agree on legislation to provide more bills of credit (Clowse 1971:238). This, coupled with the disastrous depression of 1728, brought the colony to the brink of mob violence. Clowse notes that the "initial step toward aiding South Carolina came when the proprietors were eliminated" in 1720 (Clowse 1971:241).

While South Carolina's economic woes were far from solved by this transfer, the Crown's Board of Trade began taking steps to remedy many of the problems. A new naval store law was passed in 1729 with possible advantages accruing to South Carolina. In 1730 the Parliament opened Carolina rice trade with markets in Spain and Portugal. The Board of Trade also dealt with the problem of the colony's financial solvency (Clowse 1971:245-247). Clowse notes that these changes, coupled with new land policies, "allowed the colony to go into an era of unprecedented expansion" (Clowse 1971:249). South Carolina's position was buttressed by the settlement of Georgia in 1733.

By 1730 the colony's population had risen to about 30,000 individuals, 20,000 of whom were black slaves (Clowse 1971:Table 1). The majority of these slaves were used in South Carolina's expanding rice industry. In the 1730 harvest year 48,155 barrels of rice were reported, up 15,771 barrels or 33% from the previous year (Clowse 1971:Table 3). Although rice was grown in the Beaufort area, it did not become a major crop in South Carolina until after the Revolutionary War. Rice was never a significant crop on the Beaufort Sea Islands, where ranch farming was favored because of its economic returns and favorable climate (Starr 1984:26-27). Elsewhere, however, rice monoculture shaped the social, political, and economic systems which produced and perpetuated the coastal plantation system prior to the rise of cotton culture.

Although indigo was known in the Carolina colony as early as 1669 and was being planted the following year, it was not until the 1740s that it became a major cash crop (Huneycutt 1949). While indigo was difficult to process, its success was partially due to it being complementary to rice. Huneycutt notes that planters were "able to 'dovetail' the work season of the two crops so that a single gang of slaves could cultivate both staples" (Huneycutt 1949:18). Indigo continued to

be the main cash crop of South Carolina until the Revolutionary War fatally disrupted the industry.

It is during the close of the colonial period that we find the first illustration of a settlement on the school tract. Figure 7 is the ca. 1780 map of the Beaufort area from the Dartmouth College Library's Scavenius Collection. It shows the plantation was occupied by Rupert. No such individual has yet been identified in other historic documents, although Rowland et al. note that in 1762 a George Roupel was operating the island side of the Port Royal Ferry (Rowland et al. 1997:123, 217).

This ferry had been established in this general location as early as 1733, when its operation was vested in Col. Samuel Prioleau (Rowland et al. 1996:122). A second ferry was added about a mile to west in 1737. A third operator was added in 1751. The two locations are shown on Figure 7.

Although Charleston frequently is highlighted in discussions of South Carolina's Revolutionary War activities, the Beaufort area was equally as significant to the eventual outcome.

Late in 1778 the British, controlling East Florida, began their movement in Georgia and South Carolina. Brigadier General Augustine Prevost captured Savannah and easily took control of the remainder of Georgia. This foothold allowed him to begin planning the invasion of South Carolina (Lipscomb 1974:23; Rowland 1971:70).

The first major thrust was the Battle of Port Royal on February 3, 1779 when a small band of British under Major Gardner landed at Laurel Bay and proceeded to George Roupel's plantation at the Port Royal Ferry (this provides yet additional evidence that the Rupert shown on Figure 7 is actually George Roupel). Learning that American forces where on the mainland, as well as on Port Royal, Gardner turned to fight and was defeated by General Moultrie and the local militia in their effort to take the island (Rowland et al. 1996:217).

This victory, however, was tempered by the precipitous retreat of the American garrison at Fort Lyttelton. Moultrie reported that, "the enemy had not more than 300 men when our people took fright, spiked up the guns, blew up the fort and ran away" (quoted in Rowland 1971:71). Because this essential defensive fortification was lost, Moultrie was forced to order the evacuation of Port Royal, essentially handing the eastern flank to Prevost and the British. The western flank was last a result of the Americans' disastrous defeat at Brier Creek on March 3, 1779 (Rowland 1971:71).

This provided a corridor for Prevost to launch an attack of Charleston and on April 29 he crossed the Savannah at Purrysburg. Moultrie, and his men, melted away when faced with the far superior British forces and it was only the return of General Benjamin Lincoln and his troops that prevented Prevost from pushing Moultrie to Charleston. With the return of Lincoln, Prevost retreated along the coastal islands back to Beaufort, where he established his command (Rowland 1971:76).

Although the effects of his Beaufort occupation on nearby plantations are not well documented, Rowland et al. (1996:226) do note that two cannon were placed in an earthwork at Roupel's Port Royal Ferry plantation to guard the crossing. During this period the primary British detachments in the area were the Seventy-first Highlanders and the Royal Americans (also known as the 60th Foot, and later the King's Royal Rifle Corps).

Although Rowland et al. (1996:229-242) provide additional details concerning Beaufort's role toward the end of the American Revolution, no further activity in the project area has been identified during this preliminary overview.

The general nature war, as well as several years of occupation, coupled with the removal of the royal bounties on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos during and after the war with the eventual "restructuring of the state's agricultural and commercial base" (Brockington et al. 1985:34). Rowland et al. (1996:254) explains that the District was "devastated" by the war — plantations were

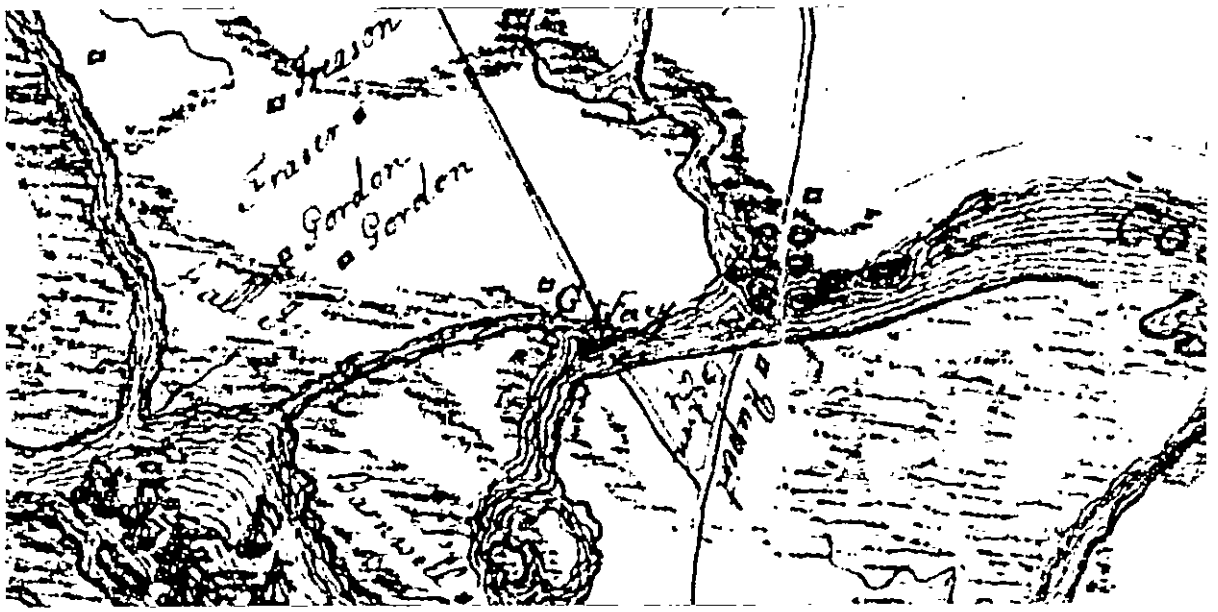

Figure 7. Portion of the ca. 1780 Beaufort area map in the Dartmouth College Library's Scavenius Collection, showing the Rupert (or Roupel) settlement.

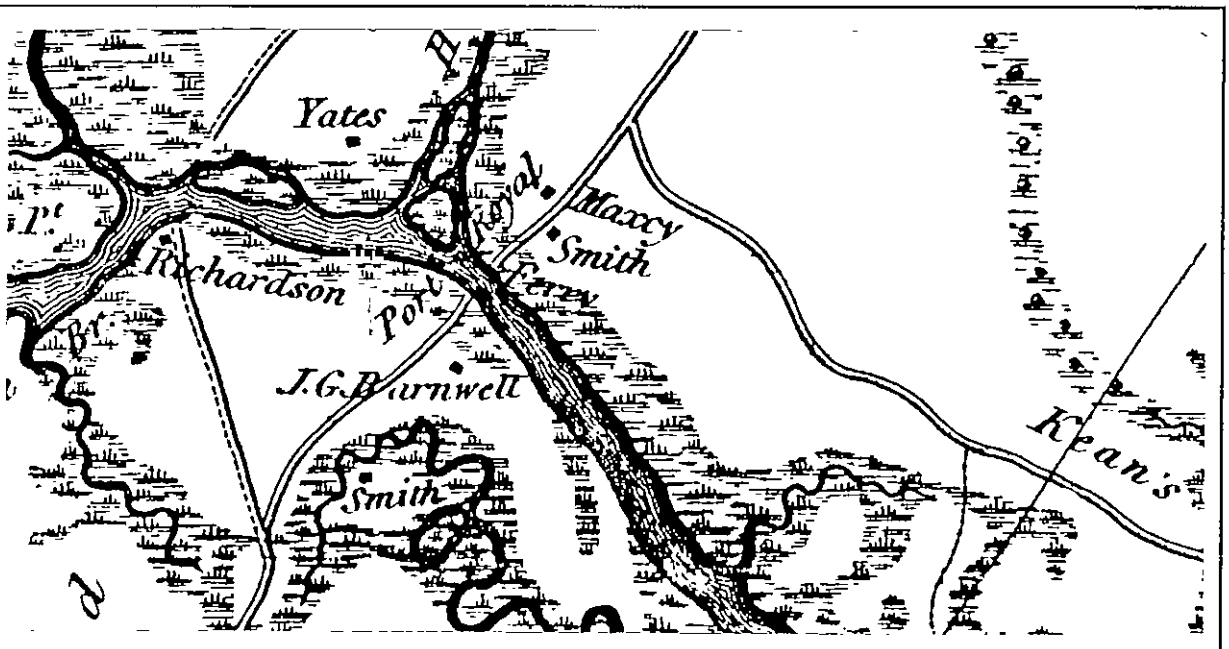

Figure 8. Portion of the 1826 Beaufort District from Mills' *Atlas* showing the John G. Barnwell settlement known as Roupelmonde.

destroyed, slaves had been carried off by the British, and livestock herds had vanished. It is likely that plantation on the study tract was especially hard hit, since it was the location of a British detachment, earthworks, and a major transportation route. Regardless, we have been able to find no specific information regarding the tract during this period of transition and re-orientation.

The Antebellum Period

While freed of Britain and her mercantilism, the new United States found its economy thoroughly disrupted. There was no longer a bounty on indigo, and in fact Britain encouraged competition from the British and French West Indies and India "to embarrass her former colonies" (Huneycutt 1949:44). As a consequence the economy shifted to tidewater rice production and cotton agriculture. Lepionka notes that "long staple cotton of the Sea Islands was of far higher value than the common variety (60 cents a pound compared to 15 cents a pound in the late 1830s) and this became the major cash crop of the coastal islands" (Lepionka et al. 1983:20). It was cotton, in the Beaufort area, that brought a full establishment of the plantation economy. Lepionka concisely states that:

> [t]he cities of Charleston and Savannah and numerous smaller towns such as Beaufort and Georgetown were supported in their considerable splendor on this wealth . . . . An aristocratic planter class was created, but was based on the essential labor of black slavery without which the plantation economy could not function. Consequently, the demographic pattern of a black majority first established in colonial times was reinforced (Lepionka et al. 1983:21).

Mills, in 1826, provides a thorough commentary on the Beaufort District noting that:

> Beaufort is admirably situated for commerce, possessing one of the finest ports and spacious harbors in the world . . . . There is no district in the state, either better watered, of more extended navigation, or possessing a larger portion of rich land, than Beaufort: more than one half of the territory is rich swamp land, capable of being improved so as to yield abundantly (Mills 1826:367).

Describing the Beaufort islands, Mills comments that they were "beautiful to the eye, rich in production, and withal salubrious" (Mills 1826:372). Land prices ranged from $60 an acre for the best, $30 for "second quality," and as low as 25 cents for the "inferior" lands. Grain and sugarcane were cultivated in small quantities for home use while:

> [t]he principal attention of the planter is . . . devoted to the cultivation of cotton and rice, especially the former. The sea islands, or salt water lands, yield cotton of the finest staple, which commands the highest price in market; it has been no uncommon circumstance for such cotton to bring $1 a pound. In favorable seasons, or particular spots, nearly 300 weight has been raised from an acre, and an active field hand can cultivate upwards of four acres, exclusive of one acre and half of corn and ground provisions (Mills 1972:368 [1826]).

Early in the exploration of Beaufort's geologic history Mills comments on "the species of rock found occasionally, of a very firm texture, resembling marble, which is evidently formed of shells" (Mills 1972:377 [1826]). Ruffin, however, provides more detail, observing:

> At the Coosa ferry, the abutment was covered with stones like both kinds found at Ashepoo (one

> calcareous & the other not) & also two species of coral or madrepore in large lumps! All these the ferryman assured us were brought from Huspa creek a few miles behind us. If this be true, even omitting the coral, there is reason to believe that the white limestone found at Ashepoo was from the river there, as well as in Huspa creek. The whetstone is certainly the same. Heard at Beaufort that these stones are imbedded in the mud, of Huspa creek, in great abundance, & are commonly supposed to be petrified live-oak roots (Mathew 1992:122).

By 1826 Mills' *Atlas* reveals that the study tract was owned by J. G. (or John G.) Barnwell (Figure 8). Very little has been found concerning Barnwell, or his operations at this plantation. What is certain, however, is that Middleton Stuart acquired the plantation in 1829, through his marriage to Barnwell's daughter, Mary Howe Barnwell (Barnwell 1969:141). This source also reveals that the plantation was known as Ferry Plantation or Roupelmonde.

It seems likely, however, that the Stuart family was involved with Roupelmonde at least by 1825, when Dr. James Stuart (Middleton Stuart's father) filed the tax return for Barnwell's property in St. Helena's Parish (South Carolina Department of Archives and History 0015 052 1824 01946). This tax return lists 1237 acres of land valued at $4/acre and 1237 acres valued at 20¢ an acre, totalling $ 5,149.40, suggesting rather middling lands. Also listed was a town lot, valued at $ 6,250 and goods or personal property valued at $11,445.40. Finally, 229 African-American slaves were also listed. This tax return reveals that Barnwell was a wealthy man by the standards of the day, even if his Port Royal lands were only of middling quality.

James Stuart filed his own, far more modest, tax return at the same time for only 365 acres and 80 slaves (South Carolina Department of Archives and History 0015 052 1824 04096). His son, Middleton Stuart (I) filed a return for only 16 slaves and no property (South Carolina Department of Archives and History 0015 052 1824 02153).

Reference to the 1860 agricultural census reveals that of the 891,228 acres of farmland, 274,015 (30.7%) were improved. In contrast, only 28% of the State's total farmland was improved, and only 17% of the neighboring Colleton District's farm land was improved. Even in wealthy Charleston District only 17.8% of the farm land was improved (Kennedy 1864:128-129). The cash value of Beaufort farms was $9,900,652, while the state average by county was only $4,655,083. The value of Beaufort farms was greater than any other district in the state for that year, and only Georgetown listed a greater cash value of farming implements and machinery (perhaps reflecting the more specialized equipment needed for rice production).

The record of wealth and prosperity, such as it was, is tempered by the realization that it was based on the racial imbalance typical of Southern slavery. In 1820 there were 32,199 people enumerated in Beaufort District, 84.9% of whom were black (Mills 1826:372). While the 1850 population had risen to 38,805, the racial breakdown had changed little, with 84.7% being black (83.2% were slaves). Thus, while the statewide ratio of free white to black slave was 1:1.4, the Beaufort ratio was 1:5.4 (DeBow 1853:338).

Middleton Stuart (I) died in 1840, but his widow appears to have continued the operation of the plantation since the 1860 agricultural census lists a Mrs. Middleton Stuart in St. Helena with a total of 600 acres, 400 of which were improved. Her plantation in this regard was fairly typical — the average improved acreage in the parish was 342 acres. The value of the plantation was listed at $12,000, with the implements valued at $250. The plantation livestock included two horses, five axes, 12 milk cows, seven oxen, 45 head of cattle, 33 sheep, and 45 swine. The value of the livestock was listed as $1,700.

Agricultural products focused on cotton, with 25 bales being produced. This was slightly above the 22.9 bale average for the 130 planters in St. Helena. Mrs. Stuart also harvested 700 bushels of corn, 600 bushels of sweet potatoes, 72 bushels of peas, and 10 tons of hay. The milk cows produced 200 pounds of butter, while the sheep contributed 80 pounds of wool. The most surprising entry is the 600 pounds of rice, suggesting that somewhere on the tract, Mary Stuart was managing to create a freshwater swamp with a dependable supply of water. Only two other plantations in St. Helena produced rice — John G. Barnwell, who must have continued to own land in the area, and M.B. Perryclear. Perryclear, who we believe was in the same general area, produced 2,000 pounds of rice, but only 10 bushels of cotton on 300 acres of improved land.

It seems that Roupelmonde was a fairly typical plantation for this region. Moreover, Mary Stuart was apparently a successful planter in her own right. The 1860 census reports that her real estate was valued at $15,000 and her personal estate was valued at $4,000. By way of comparison, her son, Middleton Stuart (II), was a planter in St. Luke's Parish and he claimed real estate valued at $9,000 and a personal estate valued at $30,000.

One untapped resource for the study of Roupelmonde is a painting of the plantation, reproduced as a small photograph in Barnwell (1969:142). It seems likely, although not specified, that the oil was painted by James Reeve Stuart, known as a relatively accomplished artist.

Civil War and the Postbellum

Hilton Head Island fell to Union forces on November 7, 1861 and was occupied by the Expeditionary Corps under the direction of General T.W. Sherman. Beaufort, deserted by the Confederate troops and the white towns-people, was occupied by the Union forces several weeks later. Hilton Head became the Headquarters for the Department of the South and served as the staging area for a variety of military campaigns. A brief sketch of this period, generally accurate, is offered by Holmgren (1959), while a similarly popular account is provided by Carse (1981). As a result of Hilton Head and Beaufort's early occupation by Union forces, all of the plantations fell to military occupation, a large number of blacks flocked to the area, and a "Department of Experiments" was born. An excellent account of the "Port Royal Experiment" is provided by Rose (1964), while the land policies on St. Helena are explored by McGuire (1985).

Recently, Trinkley (1986) has examined the freedmen village of Mitchelville on Hilton Head Island. One result of the Mitchelville work was to document how little is actually known about the black heritage and postbellum history of the sea islands. Even the social research spearheaded by the University of North Carolina's Institute for Research in Social Science at Chapel Hill in the early twentieth century (e.g. Johnson 1969, Woofter 1930) failed to record much of the activities on islands such as Hilton Head or Port Royal Island.

While it seems likely that the Union pickets were stationed at a number of places in the region, the major ferry crossing at Whales Branch, which provided a gateway for Confederate attack from the north, must have been concern. It seems likely that troops were stationed in the vicinity.

Rose (1964) and McGuire (1985) both provide excellent accounts of the political events surrounding the "Port Royal Experiment: and the land distribution policies of the Tax Commissioners. In general, however, Congress passed a law taxing owners in the insurrectionary states to help pay for the war efforts. Those not coming forward to pay taxes in areas where Union forces had gained control would have their property seized and sold by the Federal government.

That was the fate of the Ferry Landing or Roupelmonde Plantation. In March 1863 the plantation was confiscated and placed up for sale. This was one of many plantations purchased by the Federal government, which paid $100 for the 660 acres tract. A good portion of the plantation, essentially much of that east of the study tract, was resold by the government to heads of freedmen families, typically in small parcels. Many of the

black families living on Stuart's Road today can trace their land ownership back to this process of redistribution. The government collected an additional $ 837.40 from these sales, with a quarter of the funds eventually passed on to the State of South Carolina after the Civil War (Direct Tax Cases, Beaufort County, South Carolina, South Caroliniana Library).

That portion of the property held by the government was apparently a school farm. One of the more unique government programs of the "Port Royal Experiment," these were small portions of plantations set aside as mini-farms. Rent and sale proceeds from these acreages formed a public school fund intended to assist with the education of the Beaufort freedmen. Redemption of school farms came about even more slowly than other lands, largely because of their association with the funding of public education. In addition, the lands were often of marginal quality and poorly tended. By 1886 the school farm concept was abandoned and there are relatively few documents pertaining specifically to these lands. Curiously, the funds resulting from this system were not made available to the State by the Federal government until 1909 (McGuire 1982:68-69, 135-137, 217).

Mary Barnwell Stuart was living with her eldest son, Middleton Stuart (II) and his family in Sandersville, Georgia when the Civil War ended. Barnwell reports that Middleton Stuart (II) initially got a short lived position as overseer of Forest Hill Plantation in Burke County, Georgia. When the owner of the tract lost the land, Middleton and his family moved back to the Beaufort area (Barnwell 1969:237).

During the late nineteenth century most of the sea island plantations continued as a rural, isolated agrarian communities. The new plantation owners attempted to forge an economic relationship with the free black laborers and found a multitude of problems, including the need to pay higher wages, increasing problems with the cotton boll weevil, and decreasing fertility.

Stuart quickly became involved managing the William Henry Trescot plantation on Barnwell Island in the Broad River, about 5 miles from Paris Island. Trescot described Stuart as a "gentleman in whose energy, ability, and integrity, I and the whole community in which he grew up, have implicit confidence" (quoted in Amundson 1967:32). James W. Patterson, Stuart's own overseer before the war, was retained as his assistant.

Things, however, did not go well. Stuart found the labor problems serve, writing Trescot that:

> The condition of labor in this neighborhood has been very bad for the past month, owing to a report among Negroes that the Government intends issueing rations. In consequence several of our hands left us and the balance [are] much demoralized (quoted in Amundson 1967:32).

In particular, Stuart discovered that Trescot's plan to hire laborers by the season was a dismal failure, with most freedman wanting day labor jobs. It seems likely that hiring for a season, especially given the wages and retainage provisions of the contracts, felt too much like slavery. Indeed, Middleton Stuart (II), like most other Beaufort whites, expressed a clear preference for the "old system" of labor — slavery was dearly missed by the plantation elite who were now forced to work for a living (Amundson 1967:33).

The first year's crop at Barnwell Island was much less than expected, leaving Trescot with a $1,000 debt, rather than the profit he had hoped for. As a result, Stuart was not rehired for 1869, with Trescot commenting that, "his management is not as thrifty as I expected" (quoted in Amundson 1967:34). Patterson was promoted to overseer, with an old "slave driver" working as his assistant.

Maps from this period shortly after the Civil War continue to show the location of the plantation. Figure 9 shows the Law and Kirk map of the Beaufort area from 1873 with Stuart shown on the tract. The 1876 U.S. Coastal Survey map (Figure 10) also reveals that the plantation was still

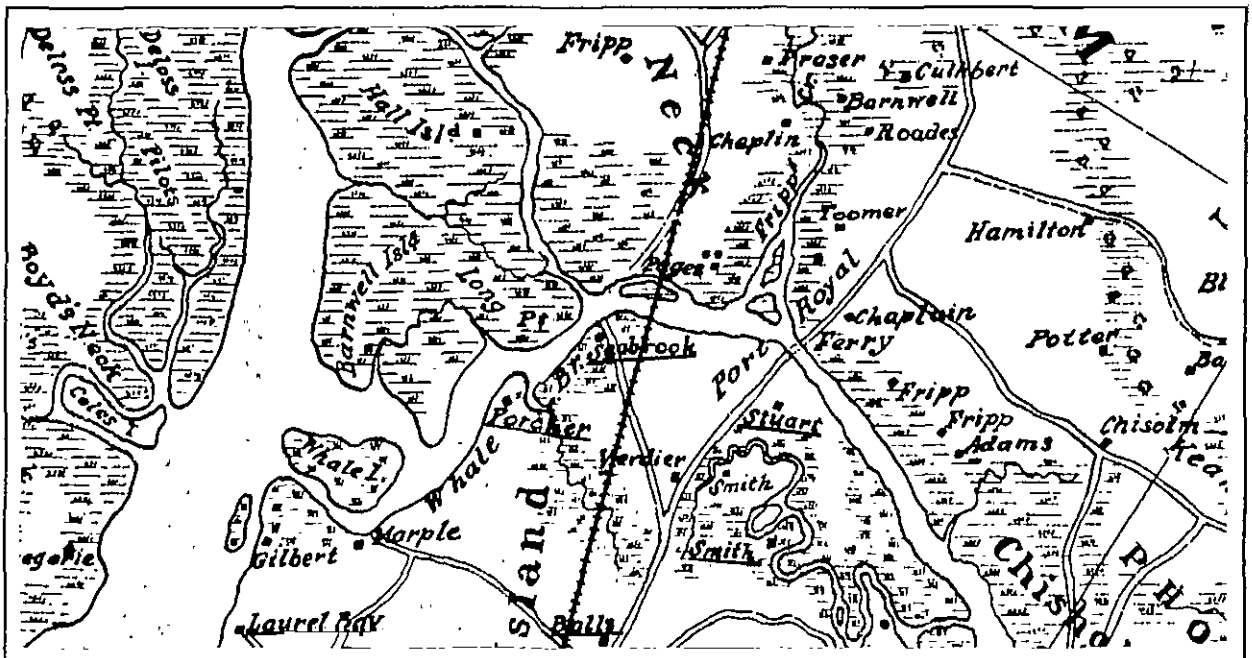

Figure 9. Portion of the 1873 Law and Kirk map of Beaufort County showing the Middleton Stuart (II) settlement at Roupelmonde.

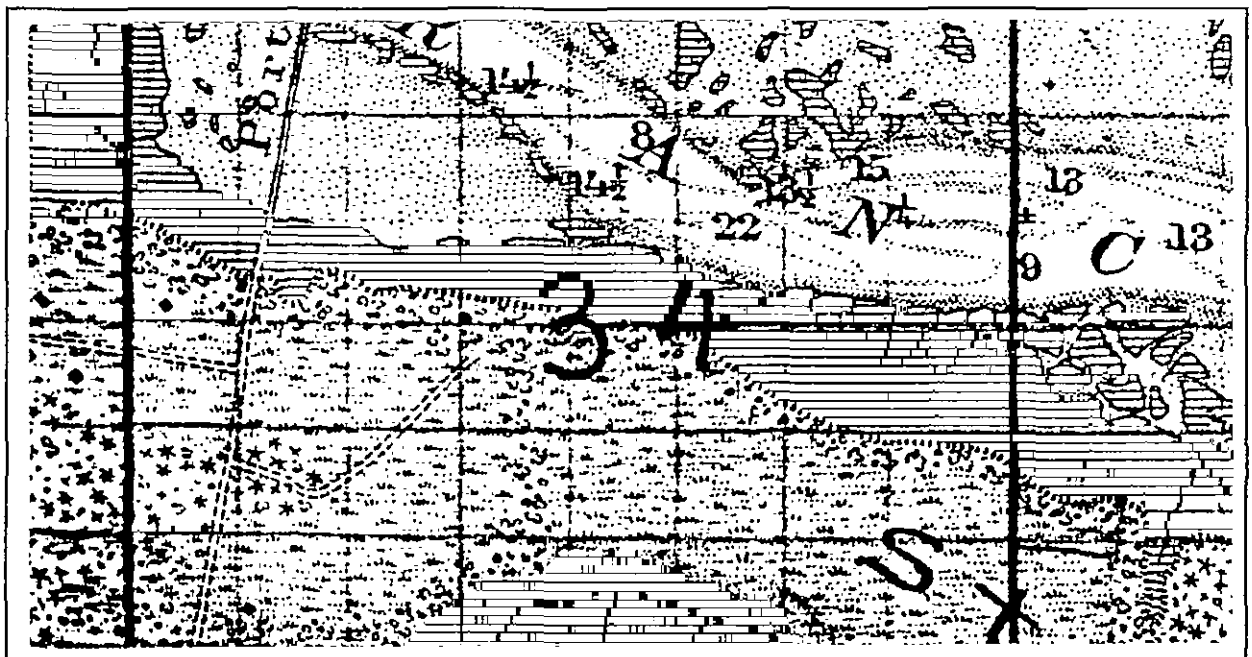

Figure 10. U.S. Coastal Survey Whale Branch map dated 1876 showing the project area and main house settlement adjacent to the marsh.

in existence and situated on the edge of the marsh. A road is shown leading to what is likely the main settlement. Additional mapping likely exists in the District Tax Commission files, but was not available at the time of these investigations.

During these postbellum year previous owners slowly came forward to reclaim, or redeem, land confiscated by the Federal government. The 1872 redemption process was not totally successful, partially because some tracts had such low value.

Middleton Stuart (II) apparently moved to Union County, where he managed the DeLoach plantation for a short while and then eventually joined with the migration of unreconstructed Confederates who moved to Texas (Barnwell 1969:238).

Middleton Stuart (II), his sister, Sarah Barnwell Stuart, and his brother, James Reeve Stuart, obtained a Certificate of Release of "School Farm" Land on December 20, 1887 (Beaufort County RMC, DB 15, p. 578). That all three surviving children of Middleton Stuart (I) were listed, suggests that while Middleton Stuart (II) may have lived at Roupelmonde and managed its operation, it was held in trust for all of the children. Regardless, the deed described the property as:

> The Middleton Stuart Place bounded Northerly by Coosaw River, Southerly by Magnolia and Greenfield Creek, Easterly by Coosaw River, Westerly by Magnolia, containing 660 acres more or less . . . included in School Farm No. 24 (Beaufort County RMC, DB 15, p. 578).

It provided the Stuarts with the property still held by the government as a school farm — about 130 acres — less two acres and a building "used for school purposes." This school tract was described only as lying on Stuart's Road, with the building in the middle of the square parcel amounting to two acres (suggesting about 295 feet on a side).

How this property was used is unclear since it wasn't restored until a year after Middleton Stuart had left South Carolina for Texas. By the 1890s a program was established to provide owners unsuccessful at either restoration or redemption with token compensation (McGuire 1982:77). In 1892 the Stuarts filed their action with the Court of Claims for the 530 acres which had been previously sold by the government (Direct Tax Cases, Beaufort County, South Carolina, South Caroliniana Library). This action is especially important since it confirms the property name and location, describing it as:

> A plantation on Port Royal Island commonly called "Roupelmonde" and now known as the "Middle Stuart Place" and containing six hundred and sixty acres (Direct Tax Cases, Beaufort County, South Carolina, South Caroliniana Library).

It also explains that the title was originally vested in all of Middleton Stuart's children, as thought and that the bulk of the property had been sold to freedmen. Whether the Stuarts were successful in obtaining any additional compensation is not, at present, known.

Nevertheless, in 1901 Middleton Stuart (II), James R. Stuart, and Sarah B. Stuart sold the 130 acres remaining of Roupelmonde to William H. McLeod and Claudius E. McLeod for $1,300 (Beaufort County RMC, DB 25, p. 64). This deed provides the names of a few of the freedmen who had purchased the surrounding portions of the plantations: Nancy Brown, Esaw Kelson, Cuffie Heyward, Adam Jenkins, and Jerry Green.

By 1918, however, only three structures were present on the project tract. One was situated adjacent to U.S. 21 immediately before leaving the highland. Two were situated north of Stuart's Road about 500 and 700 feet east of U.S. 21 (Figure 11). There is nothing left of the main plantation settlement, and virtually all of the area has been opened for farming.

As previously mentioned, a series of aerial

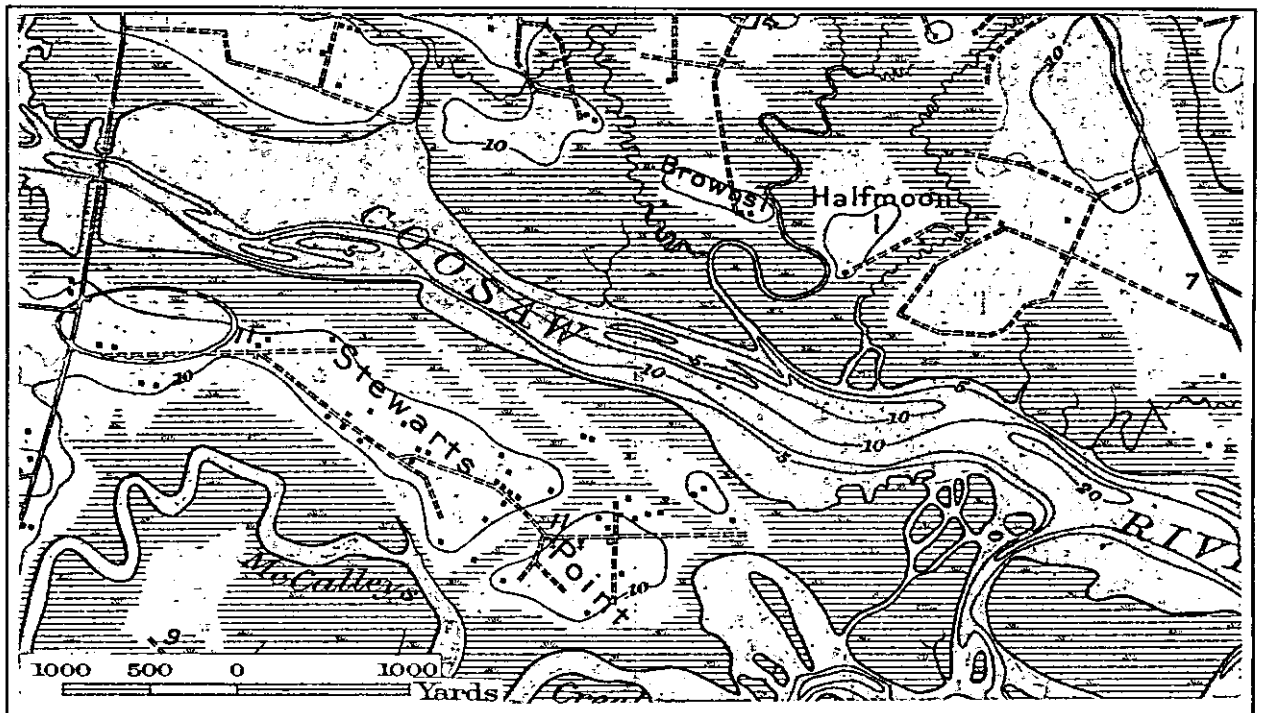

Figure 11. Portion of the 1919 Green Pond 15' USGS topographic map showing the project area.

photographs, beginning in 1959, continue to show the extensive cultivation in this area. The 1959 photograph (CDU 2AA-149) shows a young pecan ground and a variety of well defined and well cared for agricultural ditches. It also reveals what appear to be the two structures on Stuart's Road, although it is difficult to assess their conditions. There is no appreciable change into 1965 (CDU 1GG-243), although by 1972 (45013 372-121) the structures on Stuart's Road are no longer present, although the general area continues to exhibit vegetation and is not cultivated. This continues through the 1979 photograph (45013 178-62).

In 1990 the study tract, along other tracts in the vicinity totalling 1030.98 acres, were conveyed by George A. McLeod to the South Carolina National Bank, as trustee under a trust agreement signed May 11, 1990 (Beaufort County RMC DB 553, p. 1052).

FIELD INVESTIGATION AND RESULTS

Methodology

Proposed Methodology

A reconnaissance level investigation of the proposed school tract, as previously discussed, was conducted by Chicora Foundation, resulting in the identification of 38BU1689. As a result, the Beaufort School District requested that an intensive archaeological survey be conducted on the tract to help better define the site area(s) and to assess the site's potential eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. The methods to be employed in such a study are fairly well outlined by the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office's *Guidelines and Standards for Archaeological Investigations.*

We proposed one day of historical research, coupled with three days of field investigations at the study tract, with the investigations focusing on several goals. First, we intended to conduct shovel testing along transects spaced 100 feet part, with shovel tests at 100 foot intervals. All shovel tests would be about 1 foot square and would be screened through ¼-inch mesh for the recovery of cultural materials. All items would be bagged by provenience, with the exception of brick, mortar, tabby, or shell, which would be recorded and discarded in the field. Where there appeared to be concentrations of material we also proposed to use closer interval shovel tests, likely at 50-foot intervals, in order to better define specific site area. Finally, we also anticipated the excavation of several 5-foot units in order to obtain larger collections of materials and better evaluate the site's stratigraphy.

Since one large archaeological site, 38BU1689, had already been identified on the tract, we anticipated perhaps redefining its boundaries to better reflect the more detailed shovel testing and perhaps identifying specific site areas.

In so far as possible, all sites identified in the survey would be assessed for their eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This assessment process follows that outlined by Townsend et al. (1993) in *National Register Bulletin* 36. This evaluative processes involves five steps, forming a clearly defined, explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as artifacts, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site *might* be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets are sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of "important" research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

Taking each of these steps individually, the first is simply to determine what is present at the site — for example, are features present, what types of artifacts are present, from what period does the site date? This represents the collection of basic,

and essential, information concerning the site and the types of research contributions it can offer. Obviously there is no reason to propose research on eighteenth century plantation development if only early twentieth century ceramics are present. Nor is it perhaps appropriate to explore questions focused on subsistence if no faunal materials are present. This first step is typically addressed through the survey investigations, often with supporting documentation provided by historic research.

Next, it is important to understand the historic context of the site — what is the history of the project area and of the specific locality? Research questions must be posed with an understanding of this context and the context helps to direct the focus of research. The development of a historic context can be a lengthy process. Fortunately Rowland et al. (1996) have recently completed an overview of the Beaufort area's history up to the Civil War and this provides an impressive context for many investigations of this type.

Associated with the development of the context is the formation of research questions ***applicable to the site, its context, and its data sets.*** Often this research will grow out of previous projects in the area. Certainly topics of exceptional interest continue to be the examination of eighteenth and nineteenth century plantations in the Beaufort District. Recently, we are also beginning to distinguish between the size and complexity of the various plantations found on the landscape, recognizing that not all plantations are "equal" or present the same archaeological assemblage (see, for example, Adams et al. 1995; Kennedy and Roberts 1993; and Trinkley and Hacker 1996).

Next it is essential to compare the data sets with the research questions — the information necessary to address the research questions must be present at the site, else posing the question is meaningless in the evaluative process. Focusing on small projects, it may be more appropriate to concentrate on only one or perhaps two research questions and devote the energy necessary to fully explore them, then to propose a range of questions which can be only superficially explored with the data sets or resources available.

Finally, Townsend et al. recognize that not all research questions are of equal importance and that only those of fairly high value should be considered in the evaluation of National Register eligibility. Of all the steps this may be the most difficult to address. Some research questions proposed may seem pedestrian. Our society has viewed history as great events happening to great individuals. Many view architectural significance with the same jaundiced eye — significance being equated with white columns and famous architects. And certainly if the available archaeological studies of low country plantations are examined, there is a similar bias toward big plantations with relatively grand lifeways. Curiously, we know much less about the common planter or yeoman farmer — and their probably more vernacular architecture — than we do about the famous or the high style. Some historians have referred to the common person as the "invisible person." Others have offered some understanding using the concept of the "marginal man." It is consequently important to understand that significance of archaeological research questions is not judged from the perspective of the wealth, or power, or prestige of the historic persons involved. It is judged from the perspective of what the research can tell us about the past that traditional historical research cannot.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites actually being nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluation process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation where only, typically, one discrete site is being considered. In the case of survey evaluations some modifications of the approach seem reasonable, if not actually essential. Regardless, the approach advocated by Townsend et al. encourages researchers to carefully consider, and justify, their recommendations regarding National Register eligibility.

Beyond the goals outlined and the methodology for reaching them discussed here, no

further research questions were proposed for this initial study. It was essentially explorative and explicative, attempting to help the Beaufort School District better understand the archaeological resources they might likely encounter on this particular parcel.

Implemented Methodology

We discovered that the one day of historic research was entirely too limited to allow a realistic appraisal, and understanding, of the resources. As a result we spent about 2½ days conducting historical research at the Beaufort County Register of Mesne Conveyances, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, the Thomas Cooper Library, and the South Caroliniana Library. Even this expanded research failed to explore all of the materials available locally, and no effort was made to use materials known to be located at the National Archives.

The proposed field methodology changed little. We inserted shovel test transects between those conducted at 200-foot intervals during the reconnaissance level study, so that the entire tract was covered by tests at 100 foot intervals. As a result of this work 220 shovel tests were excavated at 100 foot intervals on transects spaced 100 feet apart (121 during the reconnaissance and 99 during this intensive study). The original transects were numbered 1 through 11, with the additional transects number 12 through 20 (Figure 12).

Although the historical research had identified two structures on Stuart's Road and a third on U.S. 21, the shovel testing failed to specifically reveal their locations. As a consequence, additional shovel testing was conducted on three transects (numbered 21 through 23) parallel to the road. Conducted at 25-foot intervals, a total of 64 shovel tests were excavated. Since these tests suggested that the structures had either been very ephemeral, or more likely had been very aggressively removed, no effort was made to identify the archaeological location of the third structure situated along U.S. 21.

During the running of 100-foot transects, we identified several areas of architectural debris along the edge of the bluff overlooking the marsh. Given the density of these remains, we decided to place three additional transects in this area, with the resulting 43 shovel tests all excavated at 25-foot intervals.

Based on the 100-foot transects we identified what appeared to be two concentrations of remains in the field area. We chose one area to conduct close interval testing, with shovel tests at every 50-feet. This work resulted in the excavation of an additional 62 shovel tests.

Taken together, the site area was explored with the placement of 389 shovel tests. These shovel tests were approximately 1-foot square and were excavated to subsoil, typically a yellow sand. All fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the holes were backfilled afterwards.

Finally, we selected two areas for the excavation of 5-foot units. One area, 10 feet north of ST 6 on T 5, designed TP 1, was selected because adjacent shovel tests revealed a moderate density of remains. Another area, 20 feet south of ST 6 on T 6, designated TP 2, was selected since it appeared to be situated on the edge of the site core. We hoped that these two units would better help us understand the density of materials at the site. We chose not to place a unit in the densest portion of the site, given the short length of time available for the study.

These formal units were excavated by hand with all fill screened through ¼-mesh. Shell and brick was noted, but not weighted, and was discarded in the field. A small soil sample, about 1 cup, was retained from each unit. At the conclusion of the excavations, the unit was trowelled (Figure 13) , photographed in black and white print film and color print film, and was drawn. Vertical control was maintained through reference to shovel tests and horizontal control was maintained by reference to the ground surface. Given the limited time allocated to the testing, no effort was made to identify permanent datum points on the property. Afterwards both units were backfilled.

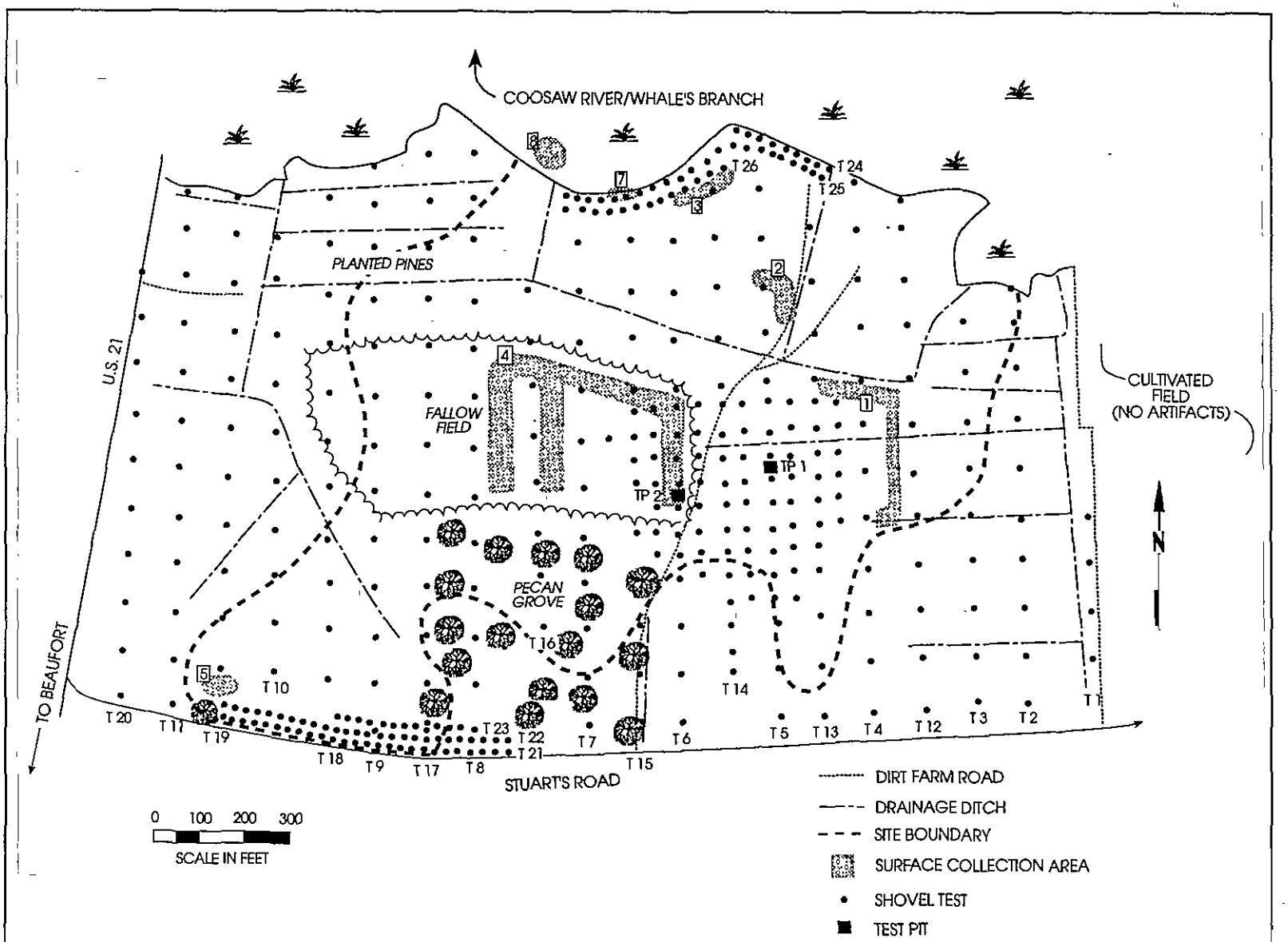

Figure 12. Map of the proposed school location showing ditches and other features, as well as the excavated shovel tests.

Figure 13. Trowelling Test Pit 1 after excavation.

Figure 14. Test Pit 2, view to the north.

Both units revealed 0.8 to 1.0 foot of very dark grayish-brown (10YR3/2) loam or loamy sand overlying a subsoil of light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) sand. Plowscars, although not deep, were common in both units (Figure 14). The soils tended to be somewhat moist, making screening difficult. Neither unit revealed features, although artifact content and variety was generally impressive.

Identified Site

One hundred forty-six of the 389 shovel tests (37.5%) were positive, containing cultural remains (pottery, ceramics, glass, nails, flakes, brick, or other materials). In addition, seven distinct areas of dense surface remains were also encountered. These different surface collection areas and positive shovel tests are plotted Figure 12 in order to help establish the overall site boundaries.

The identified site has been recorded at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as 38BU1689. The central UTM for this site is E524100 N3599350. It is estimated to measure about 1,400 feet east-west by as much as 900 feet north-south, based on the dispersion of both surface remains and positive shovel tests. This distribution is found from the marsh edge southward to within a few hundred feet of Stuarts Road. The site tends to be situated slightly off-center east-west, with the eastern boundary within about 100 feet of the property line, while the western boundary is from 200 to 400 feet east of US 21.

The site is found on both Chisolm and Coosaw soils, and it seems that the densest concentrations of historic materials may be found in the central portion of the tract, where the better drained Chisolm soils are found.

Since the site covers such a large area, there are a number of different vegetation areas included. Fairly dense remains were found in the open, fallow field, as well as in several of the food plots. Portions of the site are found in areas of planted pines, as well as in the maritime hardwoods adjacent to the marsh edge.

The topography, vegetation, and shovel tests all confirm that virtually all of the site area has been cultivated at one time. The shovel tests, however, do not reveal Ap horizons deeper than about 1.0 foot and the plowzone appears somewhat more shallow in several areas (suggestive of mule plowing, which typically does less damage than modern equipment).

The Prehistoric Assemblage

The intensive survey, just like the earlier reconnaissance study, resulted in the recovery of both prehistoric and historic materials. The current work, however, reveals that the prehistoric materials represent a thin wash across the entire site area. All of the recovered materials are highly eroded and virtually all of the pottery is heavily plow fragmented — indicative of the extensive plowing.

These prehistoric lithic materials include a fragment of a Late Archaic metavolcanic Savannah River Stemmed projectile point, a chert Caraway projectile point, a chert Clarksville projectile point and a small quantity of chert flakes. Prehistoric pottery includes both Deptford, Savannah and Irene wares, although since most of the pottery is under 1-inch in diameter, much cannot be classified.

The Deptford pottery includes plain, cord marked, fabric impressed, and simple stamped. The paste in this small sample is somewhat variable, although it tends toward coarse sand. The Savannah wares are less common and only a single cord marked specimen was identified. Several complicated stamped sherds are classified as Irene.

While scattered shell is certainly present, these prehistoric remains do not appear associated with shell middens. In fact, the shell occurs in site areas where prehistoric remains are not present, so it is just as likely associated with the historic occupation. The prehistoric remains are also somewhat unusual in the presence of lithic materials.

The presence of the lithics at this site, coupled with a non-shell midden setting is of

special research interest. Within the context of prehistoric settlements in the low country, this is a site type which needs much more study. The data sets, however, include only lithics and pottery. No other tools were collected. The one fragment of daub recovered from the shovel testing was associated only with historic materials and may represent material from a slave structure, rather than an Indian house. No faunal or floral remains were identified in tight association with the prehistoric remains. And, of course, no prehistoric features were encountered (although none were expected on the basis of a shovel test survey).

When the assemblage's integrity is examined, it appears that the prehistoric wares are not well preserved. Extensive plowing has reduced the size of materials suitable for analysis. In addition, we have been able to pinpoint no concentrations of prehistoric remains – they seem rather evenly spread over the entire tract.

Consequently, we do not believe that the prehistoric component at 38BU1689 is capable of addressing the research questions appropriate for a site of this type. As a result, **we do not recommend the prehistoric assemblage at 38BU1689 as eligible for inclusion on the National Register.** We do not believe that any further management activity is necessary concerning these prehistoric remains.

The Colonial and Antebellum Assemblage

Historic materials include specimens from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. We recovered a range of domestic and architectural specimens and several areas of the site produced small concentrations of brick and mortar. The very few specimens suggestive of an occupation into the twentieth century are discussed in a following section.

The colonial and antebellum assemblage has been broken into five different areas. Three are along the marsh edge (Figure 15) and two are further inland, covering much of the eastern third to half of the project tract. Each will be briefly discussed.

Two of the three areas along the marsh include rather dense structural remains. The eastern area measures about 80 feet east-west by 40 feet north-south, while the western area measures about 90 feet east-west by about 30 feet north-south. Although representing two distinct areas of structural rubble, both are found in a context of dense subsurface remains, suggesting that while they may represent two clusters of one or more structures each, they are situated in a dense site area represented by a quantity of remains (Figures 16 and 17).

The structural remains found at the two locations are very similar, although the eastern area does appear to be denser with perhaps three distinct piles identifiable during the survey. Both areas, however, produced large fragments of tabby, tabby or mortar bricks, fired clay bricks, and what appears to be coquina. This last material is especially unusual and may be representative of the materials noted in the vicinity of the ferry by Ruffin during the late antebellum. Although no distinct foundations or fire boxes could be distinguished, a number of edges were found and with additional time it is likely that much of this "rubble" could probably be distinguished as specific features.

These structural remains are of special importance since their investigation can provide critical information on plantation activities and layout. In particular, it may be possible to distinguish specific functional areas of the plantation. Too frequently archaeological studies focus on the most visible aspects of the plantation – often the main house or formal slave row – with little or no attention paid to the vast number of other structures common to the plantation landscape. The presence of a number of architectural loci suggests the possibility to explore these different plantation areas. In addition, these remains can also help us understand the use of this coquina-like material and its integration into the building technology of low country plantations. Although we have seen this material used in buildings in Savannah, Georgia (the Owens-Thomas Carriage House, for example), we have not seen it in South Carolina contexts.

Figure 15. Area of dense historic remains at the marsh edge, view to the west.

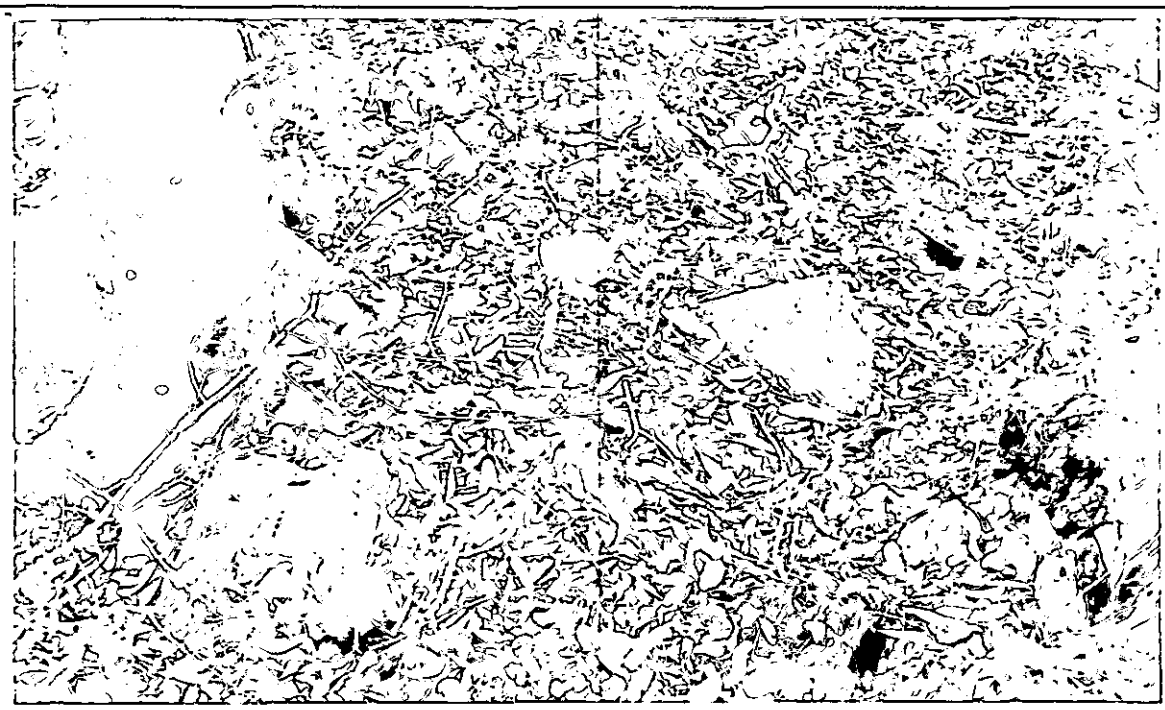

Figure 16. Brick and coquine rubble in the woods next to the marsh.

Figure 17. Tabby rubble in the woods adjacent to the marsh edge.

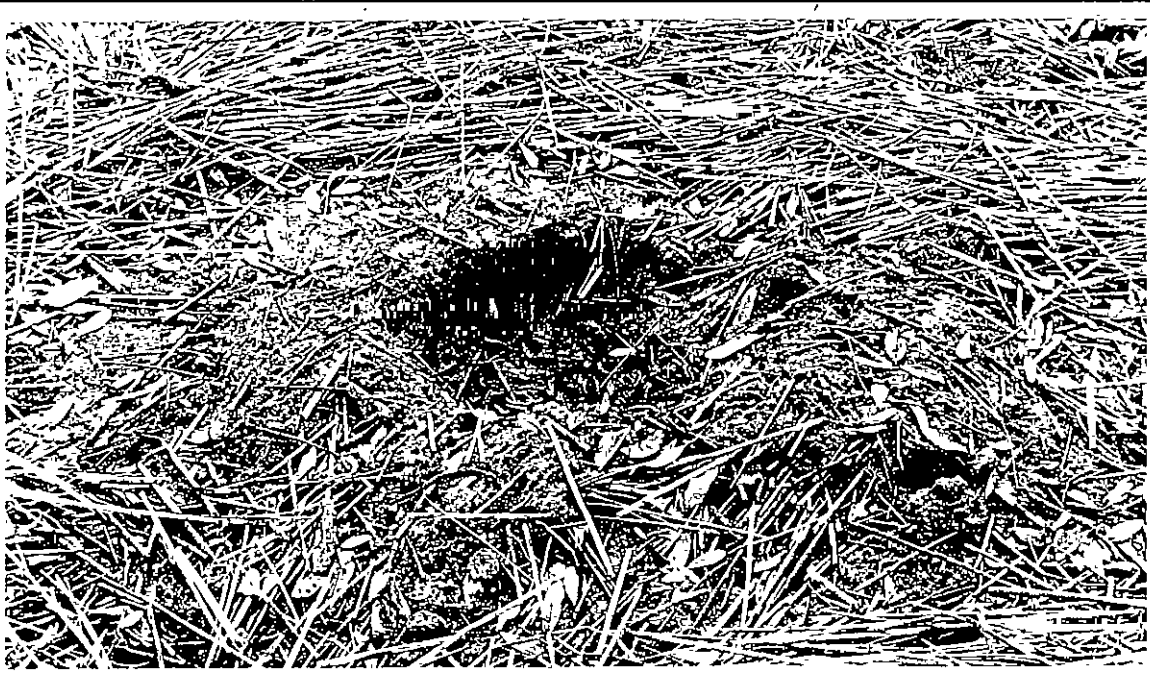

Figure 18. Pot hole dug in the marsh, view to the southwest.

Coupled with the structural remains, a series of three transects with shovel tests at 25-foot intervals along the edge of the bluff inland for about 75 feet, revealed a dense concentration of domestic material associated not only with the surface remains, but also with the intervening area. In general, the bluff edge appears to represent a very densely occupied site area. Materials are encountered over an area at least 500 to 600 feet along the marsh edge. This is an exceptionally important part of the total site area.

The data sets at these two loci (and their intervening dense concentration of artifacts) are quite varied, including both domestic and architectural remains. Clearly there are a variety of important research questions which they may reasonably be expected to address. Further, this portion of the site appears to be in good (western section) to excellent (eastern section) condition. Of greatest concern is the amount of erosion present in the western section of this area. As discussed below, there is considerable evidence that a portion of the main plantation has been lost to erosion.

Consequently, **we recommend these bluff edge components as eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.** Although normally green spacing is the preferred option, given the high impact and use of school sites, coupled with the potential for damage during construction and the potential for future erosion in this area, we do not encourage green spacing. We believe that an appropriate, well-designed green spacing program might be as costly as data recovery. In particular, green spacing would require an aggressive program of erosion control along the marsh bluff, coupled with site burial. Through data recovery the important information could be retrieved, freeing this area for normal use and relieving the School Board of long-term concerns over erosion control.

The third marsh area is situated in the marsh itself. During the study we noticed that erosion has scalloped or cut into the bluff area for about 300 feet. It is likely that upwards of 100 feet have been lost. Although we have not made an extensive study of this, it is possible that this erosion has been encouraged by a plantation landing at this location, perhaps with an artificial channel encouraging greater water movement in this area.

On the hard marsh at the edge of the bluff we recovered a small collection of relatively large artifacts — several bottle bases and a portion of a large ceramic vessel. Our investigation also revealed that the marsh was being pot hunted. No fewer than 12 distinct holes, with adjacent spoil were counted (Figure 18). A number of broken or discarded artifacts were found in or adjacent to these spoil piles. The holes appear to represent either efforts probing for the recovery of artifacts, or more likely areas where a metal detector has been used. The pothunting of marsh areas is relatively uncommon, but reveals that significant quantities of artifacts have eroded out the bluff edge and are now deposited in the marsh. There may also be some buried wood material, perhaps from lost boats or the landing area itself.

This is an exceptionally important site area, even though it has been extensively damaged by erosion. Since it is situated in the marsh and is not likely an area slated for construction, we have not focused much research efforts on the area. Nevertheless, we do believe there is sufficient information to suggest that **the remains of the landing or materials associated with the landing may be eligible,** since they are redeposited. Regardless, other issues which must be considered are the stabilizing of this section of marsh to reduce erosion (if an effort is made to green space the upland portion of the marsh edge site previously discussed) and measures to stop the site looting (which will almost certainly spread to the site itself, especially when the woods are opened up by construction activities).

Moving somewhat further inland, two dense site areas have been found, adjacent to one another, on the east central portion of the tract. These two areas blur together to cover an area measuring about 900 feet north-south and 400 feet east-west. One concentration appears to be in the center of this area, while a second is further toward the marsh. The more southerly concentration was the area subjected to close

Figure 19. Planted pines in the central portion of site where dense remains were found. View to the east.

interval testing and this is also the area where two 5-foot units were excavated. The entire area is dominated by planted pines (Figure 19).

Postbellum Remains

As previously mentioned, three structures were identified on the 1919 map of the site area, with several of these structures present until the middle of the twentieth century. In an effort to locate these remains, three transects were excavated adjacent to Stuart's Road with shovel tests at 25-foot intervals.

Relatively few remains were found in these tests. Although there was a modest, albeit small, concentration probably representing the eastern structure, the western one was much less well defined. We were unable to find any of the artifacts or features commonly found at tenant sites, such as bricks, metal fragments, or domestic plantings (chinaberry trees or daffodils, for example). We were not even able to find convenient access from the road into the posited yard areas.

The exceptionally low number of data sets, coupled with the evidence that these structures were aggressively removed sometime in the mid-twentieth century, supports our recommendation that **these postbellum assemblages are not eligible for inclusion on the National Register.** We recommend no additional management activities in these areas.

The failure to recover substantial materials from these two sites on Stuart's Road, coupled with our failure to recover any historic material in routine transect shovel testing, were the primary reasons that no effort was made to identify the third structure shown on the 1919 map.

Our survey also failed to identify any materials which could reasonably be associated with a school along Stuart's Road. Based on research at Woodville Academy in Sumter County (Trinkley et al. 1985), as well as research at Mitchelville on Hilton Head Island (Trinkley 1986), suggests that the school would have had a fairly weak archaeological signature. Regrettably,

no clear evidence of the school was encountered. Perhaps the most likely prospect is the surface material recovered at Area 5, and lumped with the materials thought to be associated with the western structure shown on the 1919 map.

The Archaeological Collection

Table 1 lists the artifacts recovered from the shovel tests and surface areas, while the test unit materials are listed in Table 2. Even a quick examination reveals an exceptional array of materials from a long occupation span.

The ceramics recovered from the site include very early eighteenth century wares such as North Devon gravel tempered and lead glazed slipwares; mid-eighteenth century wares such as Nottingham stoneware, white salt glazed stoneware, delft, and Westerwald; late eighteenth and early nineteenth century wares, such as creamware and pearlware; and mid-nineteenth century wares such as whiteware.

When the mean ceramic date is calculated for units 1 and 2, the resulting dates fall into the last quarter of the nineteenth century (Tables 3 and 4). When all of the wares from the site (excepting those from the two units, which represent very spatially concentrated materials) are used for an overall mean date, the result is much later — 1806.5 (Table 5).

Assuming that the plantation has a date range of about 1740 to 1860, the mean historic date would be 1800 — surprisingly close to the mean ceramic date obtained for the overall site. Consequently, it is fairly safe to assume that the plantation has seen essentially continuous occupation from the early eighteenth century until the Civil War.

Both high status motifs, such as transfer prints and painted wares, and low status edged and annular wares are present in the assemblage, suggesting that both owner and slave are probably represented in the collections. Stonewares, besides those mentioned, include both utilitarian salt glazed and alkaline glazed specimens and also ginger beer bottle fragments.

The container glass is dominated by "black" glass, including both specimens which appear to date from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Also present is brown, aqua, and clear glass. From the site area toward Stuart's Road, "modern" clear, green, and light green glass is found, as well as a few specimens of manganese glass.

Architectural remains are only locally common, suggesting that at least a few of shovel tests were likely in the vicinity of structural remains. Materials recovered are limited to window glass and nails. The nails, unfortunately, were in very poor condition, probably the result of the relatively moist soil conditions.

Tobacco pipe bowls and stems are present, although not especially common. Only the one furniture item, a brass tack, was recovered. Likewise, only one arms artifact, a piece of lead shot, was found.

Although personal group items are absent, several clothing group specimens were recovered. One, from Unit 1, is of special interest. It is an example of South's Type 9 button of white metal. Stamped on the face is "71." This button was lost by a British soldier during one of the times the plantation was occupied. The other buttons recovered from the site are representative of civilian use.

When the collections from the two excavation units are examined, they can be seen to be very similar. In both cases kitchen artifacts dominate the assemblage, accounting for over 80% of the recovered materials. Architectural remains account for between 11 and 14%, with the other groups following between less than 1% up to about 4%.

This pattern is very similar to the Carolina Slave Artifact Pattern (Garrow 1982), although the collection is small and there is likely some blending of both owner and slave assemblages. Nevertheless, it suggests that the upland assemblage samples by the two test units may represent at least part of the

Table 1.
Artifacts Recovered from the Shovel Tests

			Creamware		Pearlware				Whiteware						Window		Kaolin Pipe		UID			Small							
Prov	Delft	LGS	u	a	u	hp	tp	a	u	a	tp	e	Por	Glass	Glass	Nails	B	S	Iron	D	S	Sherds	F	CSPP	Daub	Bone	Colono	SW	Other
T1 ST2																			1										
T2 ST9														2															
T3 ST6														1															
T3 ST9																										2			
T4 ST6									1					3			1					1							
T4 ST7														1															
T4 ST12																				1									
T5 ST1																						1							
T5 ST4		1			2					1				5	1									1	1	1			
T5 ST5	1	3	2			1							1	3	1										1	3			
T5 ST6														4								1			2	1			
T5 ST8														2															
T5 ST9										1				1												1			
T5 ST10											1			2	1	1						1							
T5 ST12																						1							
T6 ST5	1																					3					1		
T6 ST6		1	2																										
T6 ST7														1															
T6 ST11					1									1															
T7 ST2																					1								
T7 ST3																										1			
T7 ST7																						1							
T7 ST12							1																						
T8 ST4																						1							
T8 ST5																						1							
T8 ST7																										1			
T8 ST8																						2							
T8 ST9																						3							
T9 ST4																				1									
T9 ST6																1						1							
T9 ST8														1															
T9 ST10																						1							
T10 ST1																						4							
T10 ST2																				3		3							
T12 ST4														1															
T12 ST5														3															
T12 ST10																						1							
T13 ST4																						1							
T13 ST5									1					3															
T13 ST6										1				4								1							2
T13 ST7													1																1
T13 ST10																										1			
T14 ST2																													1
T14 ST3																						2		1					

Table 1, continued.
Artifacts Recovered from the Shovel Tests

			Creamware		Pearlware				Whiteware						Window		Kaolin Pipe		UID			Small						
Prov	Delft	LGS	u	a	u	hp	tp	a	u	a	tp	e	Por	Glass	Glass	Nails	B	S	Iron	D	S	Sherds	F	CSPP	Daub	Bone	Colono	SW	Other
T14 ST4														1								2							
T14 ST5		1	2											2												1		1	
T14 ST6													1									1				1			
T14 ST10			1		1		1						1										1						
T11 ST11			1																										
T15 ST7														1															
T15 ST11														3															
T16 ST7													1																
T17 ST8																						1							
T17 ST10														1															
T18 ST1																1													
T21 ST4														1															1
T21 ST5														3															
T21 ST6														1															
T21 ST9														2															1
T21 ST10														1															
T21 ST11																						1							
T21 ST13																						1							
T21 ST15																													1
T21 ST20																											1		
T22 ST9																						1							
T22 ST10														1	2											1			1
T22 ST11														5	3	1						1				1			1
T22 ST12														2	1	2						1							
T22 ST13																2						2							
T22 ST14																						1							
T22 ST15																						2							
T22 ST20																						1							
T23 ST2																						1							
T23 ST3															1														
T23 ST6															1														
T23 ST10																						2							
T23 ST11																						1							
T23 ST12																						3							
T24 ST1																			2										
T25 ST1																2													
T25 ST3							1																						
T25 ST4																						1							
T25 ST5														1															
T25 ST7			1											1														1	
T25 ST8			1																										
T25 ST9																1													
T25 ST11		1											1																1
T25 ST13					1																								

Table 1, continued.
Artifacts Recovered from the Shovel Tests

			Creamware		Pearlware				Whiteware						Window		Kaolin Pipe		UID			Small						
Prov	Delft	LGS	u	a	u	hp	tp	a	u	a	tp	e	Por	Glass	Glass	Nails	B	S	Iron	D	S	Sherds	F	CSPP	Daub	Bone	Colono	SW	Other
T25 ST15														2								2			1			
T25 ST16														2											1			
T25 ST17		1			1			1						2		2								1				1
T25 ST18			2											3											1			1
T25 ST19								1	1						1	1											1	
T25 ST20														1		1												1
T25 ST21																						1						
T26 ST1			1																									
T26 ST2			2		1	1									1													
T26 ST3			2											1	2										1			2
T26 ST4			4		3	1	1	1		1				2											1		2	
T26 ST5									1					4		2											1	
T26 ST6	1		2						1																			
T26 ST8						1																						
T26 ST9						1								2														
T26 ST10			2						2																			
T26 ST 11			2				1		1					2														1
N200E350					1				2																			
N250E150														1														1
N250E250														1								1						
N250E300		1																1										1
N300E150														2														1
N300E250																						3						
N300E350							1																					
N300E450														2														
N350E150					1									1														
N350E200																												1
N350E250													1	1											1			
N350E300			1		2	1			2				1	4	1							1			1		1	
N350E350					1				1																		1	1
N350E400														2														2
N350E450									1										1						1			
N350E550									2																			
N400E250		1						1																				1
N400E350			2						2				2	2	1			1				2					1	
N400E450			2																			1					1	1
N450E150																											1	
N450E200					1																							
N450E250														1								1						
N450E300														2					2									
N450E350		1	1								1			2	1			1				1			2	1		3
N450E400	1										1		1	2	2							3			1			3
N450E450									1	1	1	1																2
N500E250																						1					1	

Table 1, continued
Artifacts Recovered from the Shovel Tests

			Creamware		Pearlware				Whiteware						Window		Kaolin Pipe		UID			Small						
Prov	Delft	LGS	u	a	u	hp	tp	a	u	a	tp	e	Por	Glass	Glass	Nails	B	S	Iron	D	S	Sherds	F	CSPP	Daub	Bone	Colono	SW	Other
N500E350													1					1				2					2	
N500E450									1				1	2		2	1											
N550E250														1					1									
N550E350														3		1												1
N550E400																						1						
Surface 1			1		1				8	1		2		5								1					2	
Surface 2			2		1				1	1				1													1	
Surface 3			4		2		1	1	3																			
Surface 4		1			2	1						1	2					1		6		20	3	1				
Surface 5									2											1								
Surface 6		1		1	1				5	1				3										1			1	1
Surface 7			1											3					1									
Surface 8	1		1				2				1		1	2	1												1	1

LGS = lead glazed slipware, u = undecorated, a = annular, hp = hand painted, tp = transfer printed, e = edged, Por = porcelain, Glass = container glass, B = bowl, S = stem, D = Deptford pottery, S = Savannah pottery, F = flakes, CSPP = projectile point, SW = stoneware

large Roupelmonde slave settlement.

The materials recovered from the survey efforts at 38BU1689 are very interesting, representing some of the earliest materials found in a plantation context in Beaufort County. In addition, the quantity of remains (even from the earliest period) is very impressive, suggestive of an intensively occupied settlement. In addition, the recovery of the one British military button offers a tantalizing glimpse into this little researched aspect of Beaufort's history.

It is difficult, even with this large assemblage to evaluate the nature or function of the different site areas. Overall, the proportion of less expensive annular and edged wares is very similar to that of the more costly hand painted and transfer printed patterns (45.6% to 54.5%). It is likely that much more carefully delineated site areas are necessary before these differences will be apparent.

A final artifact type worthy of brief mention is animal bone. Although the soils are both acidic and moist, animal bone was recovered from 17 different shovel tests. In most cases tests yielding faunal remains were clustered together (for example, Transect 5, Shovel Tests 4-6). Not only does the recovery of this quantity of animal bone suggest that dietary studies may be appropriate at this site, but it also suggests that the plowing has only minimally dispersed materials and that distinct concentrations are likely present.

Table 2.
Artifacts Recovered from Test Pits 1 and 2

	Test Pit 1		Test Pit 2	
Kitchen Group				
Ceramics	131		28	
Glass	105		26	
		81.5%		84.4%
Architectural Group				
Window glass	20		2	
Nails	20		5	
		13.8%		10.9%
Furniture Group				
Brass tack	1			
		0.3%		
Arms Group				
Lead shot	1			
		0.3%		
Tobacco Group				
Pipe stems	7			
Pipe bowls	4		2	
		3.8%		3.1%
Clothing Group				
Button	1		1	
		0.3%		1.6%
	290		64	

Table 3.
Mean Ceramic Date for Unit 1

Ceramic	Date Range	Mean Date (xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Underglaze blue porcelain	1660-1800	1730	2	3460
Nottingham stoneware	1700-1810	1755	1	1755
Westerwald	1700-1775	1738	1	1738
White SG SW	1740-1775	1758	2	3516
Lead glazed slipware	1679-1795	1733	16	27728
Clouded wares	1740-1779	1755	3	5265
Decorated delft	1600-1802	1750	2	3500
Plain delft	1640-1800	1720	7	12040
North Devon	1650-1775	1713	2	3426
Creamware, undecorated	1762-1820	1791	29	51939
Pearlware, poly hand paint	1795-1815	1805	4	7220
blue hand paint	1780-1820	1800	4	7200
blue trans print	1795-1840	1818	5	9090
edged	1780-1830	1805	3	5415
annular/cable	1790-1820	1805	3	5415
undecorated	1780-1830	1805	15	27075
Whiteware, blue edged	1826-1880	1853	1	1853
blue trans print	1831-1865	1848	1	1848
non-blue trans	1826-1875	1851	2	3702
annular	1831-1900	1866	1	1866
undecorated	1813-1900	1860	15	27900
			119	212,951

212,951 ÷ 119 = 1789.5

Table 4.
Mean Ceramic Date for Unit 2

Ceramic	Date Range	Mean Date (xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
White SG SW	1740-1775	1758	1	1758
Lead glazed slipware	1679-1795	1733	4	6932
Plain delft	1640-1800	1720	1	1720
North Devon	1650-1775	1713	1	1713
Creamware, undec	1762-1820	1791	9	16119
Pearlware, blue hp	1780-1820	1800	2	3600
annular	1790-1820	1805	1	1805
undec	1780-1830	1805	4	7220
Whiteware, edged	1826-1880	1853	1	1853
blue tp	1831-1865	1848	1	1848
non-b tp	1826-1875	1851	2	3701
annular	1831-1900	1866	1	1866
undec	1813-1900	1860	15	27900
			23	40,867

40,867 ÷ 23 = 1776.8

Table 5.
Mean Ceramic Date Shovel Tests and Surface Materials

Ceramic	Date Range	Mean Date (xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Underglaze blue porcelain	1660-1800	1730	6	10380
Westerwald	1700-1775	1738	2	3476
White SG SW	1740-1775	1758	4	7032
White SGSW, scratch blue	1744-1775	1760	2	3520
Lead glazed slipware	1679-1795	1733	13	22529
Clouded wares	1740-1779	1755	1	1755
Decorated delft	1600-1802	1750	1	1750
Plain delft	1640-1800	1720	4	6880
North Devon	1650-1775	1713	1	1713
Creamware, annular	1780-1815	1798	1	1798
undecorated	1762-1820	1791	41	73431
Pearlware, poly hand paint	1795-1815	1805	4	7220
blue hand paint	1780-1820	1800	5	9000
blue trans print	1795-1840	1818	7	12726
edged	1780-1830	1805	4	7220
annular/cable	1790-1820	1805	5	9025
undecorated	1780-1830	1805	24	43320
Whiteware, green edged	1826-1830	1828	1	1828
blue edged	1826-1880	1853	2	3706
blue trans print	1831-1865	1848	4	7392
non-blue trans	1826-1875	1851	1	1851
annular	1831-1900	1866	8	14928
undecorated	1813-1900	1860	40	74400
			183	330,586

330,586 ÷ 183 = 1806.5

CONCLUSIONS

Nature of the Site

Site 38BU1689 contains essentially three assemblages — a prehistoric assemblage, a colonial and antebellum assemblage, and a postbellum or early twentieth century assemblage. The discussions in the previous section has assessed each of these assemblages for their eligibility on the National Register of Historic Places. The prehistoric components and the late postbellum or twentieth century components have been recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register and, for these, no additional management activities are recommended.

The colonial and antebellum plantation remains, however, have been recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This assemblage may be divided into five distinct areas or loci. Three are along or in the marsh, while two are situated further inland in the planted pines on the eastern central portion of the school tract.

This site appears to possess the data sets, and to exhibit sufficient integrity, to address a broad range of questions, including

- early plantation settlement and development of this portion of Beaufort District (an area for which we have almost no information);
- plantation organization with a special focus on the structural remains at the edge of the marsh (again a topic which has received relatively little attention);
- plantation dietary patterns, perhaps with a focus on change over time if discrete features are found (this is a topic which has received considerable attention, but often the collections are too small to allow any strong conclusions);
- the lifeways of a small, but successful planter in a remote section of the district, well removed from the highly profitable sea island cotton plantations (another topic which has been only briefly explored); and
- evidence of military activities on the plantation (especially significant since this plantation is known to have been frequently used by British forces during the American Revolution).

While additional topics can likely be devised, these at least offer some indication of the site's significance.

The current investigations have dramatically reduced the overall size of the sensitive, or eligible, areas of the site. Nevertheless, the significant portions of the site still cover approximately half of the property, including all of the area proposed for the elementary school.

Figure 20 illustrates the locations of these significant site areas, also revealing the density of materials at the various locations. The test units also clearly document the density of materials at the site, with even the unit placed at the edge of the site loci producing 63 historic artifacts.

This site is very fragile, with materials found on the surface or within the upper foot (although buried features like foundations, wells, and trash pits are very likely present since there is no indication of deep plowing or other significant

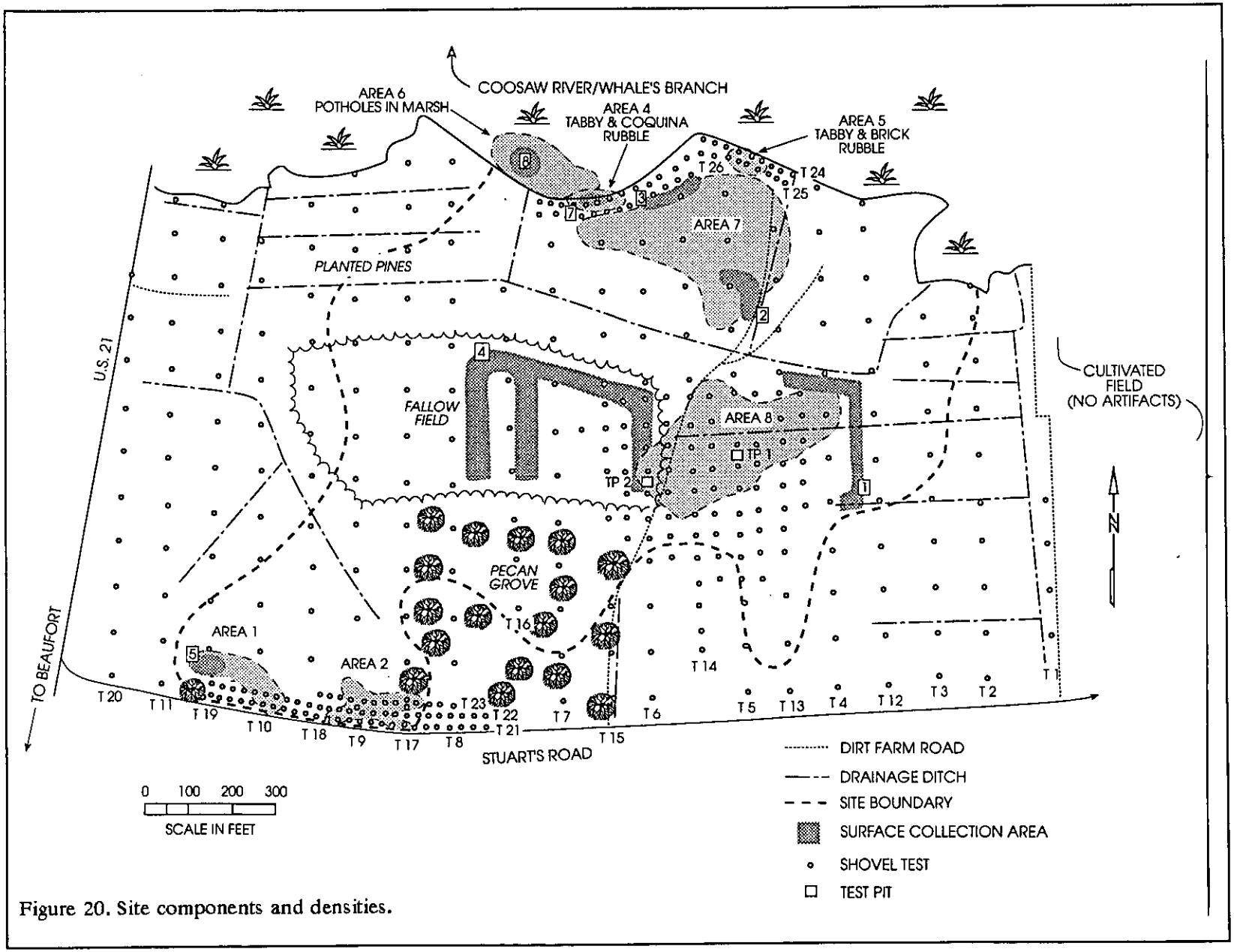

Figure 20. Site components and densities.

disturbances). Construction related activities ranging from clearing and grubbing, to building, to utility construction, to road improvements, to landscaping could all destroy this site. In addition, we are also seeing evidence that the site is being looted and this expose will only as the site area is opened up and visitors increase. Once in use the school will continue to have a negative impact on the resources, as students disturb the soil and pick up artifacts. Erosion along the marsh edge will also continue, perhaps even increasing as the vegetation of the area and water run-off changes.

Recommendations

Green spacing is often the preferred alternative for site preservation. It "banks" the site for future generations and is often a cost-effective approach. This technique, however, requires that the site can be "put aside" in perpetuity, with the assurance that it will not be impacted by development or use activities. Further, a preservation plan must be developed and implemented which details how the site will be protected.

In the current situation, we do not believe that green spacing is an appropriate response. We believe that, first, it will be very difficult to green space the entire site and still productively use the tract. The placement of the site opens up a portion of the acreage, but precludes use of other areas. Second, we do not believe that the School District is in a position to take on site preservation activities. With limited, and fluctuating budgets, long-range preservation activities may not be possible. Third, we are not certain that sufficient preservation measures can be taken to ensure that the site is not damaged by routine use. As mentioned earlier, school kids can be incredibly active and quickly wear down ground areas. Finally, any preservation plan would also need to address the continued erosion of the site, and this is likely to be very costly.

We believe that data recovery is a better option in this particular case. Once excavations were completed, the site area would be entirely opened up for development activities and use without restriction. This would allow the school district to maximize the use of the tract.

Data recovery activities, in brief, would include:

- additional historical research, including the use of National Archives resources;
- hand clearing of the pine trees covering a substantial portion of the inland site area to allow for block excavations;
- block excavation, by hand, to recover materials present in the plow zone, as well as to expose features;
- hand clearing couple with bush hogging of vegetation along the marsh edge to allow for small block excavations focusing on both structural remains and adjacent sheet midden areas.

The historical research should include at least a week researching the District Tax Commission, Freedmen's Bureau, and School Farm records. While there are other local resources, we doubt that many of these will prove especially productive. An effort, however, should continue to be made to locate an early plat for Roupelmonde, which might help guide additional field research.

The field research on the inland area should minimally anticipate hand clearing about two acres of pine to allow at least four 30 by 30 foot block excavations. These excavations should be by hand since the site remains are exceedingly dense and these artifacts and faunal remains may provide significant information addressing the previously outlined research topics. Mechanical stripping may be appropriate, ***but only after extensive hand excavations.***

Research along the marsh edge is likely to be more difficult. This area has very dense hardwood vegetation and thick, matted roots.

Nevertheless, hand excavations in this area are required for a variety of reasons. Not only will the structural remains require very careful hand exposure, but more aggressive mechanical stripping would likely impact the marsh. Even here the artifact density is sufficiently high to warrant very careful hand excavations to assure the collection of an adequate sample to address the research questions.

In this area we believe that a minimum of six 20 by 20 foot blocks should be anticipated, in order to adequately expose, and sample, the different structural remains.

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